

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 15, 1894.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND gave a characteristic exhibition of the courageous plain-speaking which has been the chief cause of his popularity, at Philadelphia on Monday, when he took occasion, at the launching of the new steamship of the American Line, to make a vigorous attack upon our absurd navigation laws. The great steamship about which all the newspapers are hurrahing would never have been built had not those laws been modified. The President reminded his hearers of that fact, and advised them to couple their rejoicings over the great event with a determination to do away with the laws entirely, and thus "set free American mechanical industry and excite American enterprise." We commend to all disciples of good Americanism the following passage from his speech:

"I am not able to see why Americans owning ships, navigated by Americans and carrying American cargoes, should in any case be driven to the protection of a foreign flag; and it seems to me that the stars and stripes entering a port of the United States and spread over Americans and American property should never be frowned upon and repelled by American officials acting under the mandate of our navigation laws. In the interest of a revival of American commerce, so much needed, and for the honor of our flag, so dear to us all, I am willing that the defence of our Government and flag shall be accorded to all ships of American ownership, wherever built. Make our flag a more familiar sight in the ocean-carrying trade, and thus remind our citizens that a large share of the carrying trade of the world is due them, and we need have no fear that our shipbuilders, under laws giving them a fair chance, will suffer from foreign competition."

This heretical deliverance seems to have been well received in the very innermost sanctuary of protection. The *Philadelphia Ledger* praises the President's courage, and the *Philadelphia Press* says that his speech was "in the main judicious and appropriate," though "in one or two sentences he furtively and guardedly suggested his peculiar view of the pathway to enlarged commerce." It would be interesting to know what the *Press* would regard as an open and unguarded suggestion of that view.

The overwhelming defeat of Hill is the political death and burial of the worst man in American politics. His ghost will flit in and out of the Senate for the next two years, but his power for mischief is ended. For the first time in his career, he stood solely upon his own character and record, and secured a verdict from the people which was not complicated with any other issue. He first came into prominence in 1882, swept into the Lieutenant-Governorship, as Cleveland's associate, by a "tidal wave" which he had done nothing to cre-

ate. He secured his first election as Governor in 1885 through the refusal of the Blaine Republicans to support his opponent and so let a Republican carry the State which their favorite had lost. At his second election as Governor, in 1888, he was able to trade a presidency for a governorship, and also to mass the Republican as well as the Democratic liquor vote on his side through Warner Miller's championship of high-license. Fortune again came to his rescue in 1890, when the political revolution precipitated by Reed and McKinley enabled the Democrats of New York to carry the Legislature for the first time in eight years and send him to the Senate. This year, for the first time in his experience, he neither was helped by Republican treachery, nor had anything to trade, nor could float on a Democratic tide strong enough to carry everything before it. David B. Hill himself was the sole issue, and he is beaten by a majority so overwhelming that he may be dismissed from further consideration as a leader.

Having overwhelmed Democratic rascals and bosses, the Republicans now have on their hands the job, just as imperative and even harder, of attending to their own rascals and bosses. It was inevitable, but it is none the less ominous, that the offensive and repudiated Republican bosses and intriguers of other days should now step promptly to the front. Keifer is out for the Ohio governorship, and Davis has already opened headquarters in Chicago to make a fight for the Illinois senatorship. Worst of all is the way Republican legislators and candidates for office in this State are hastening to prostitute themselves by the score at the feet of Boss Platt. He has begun to give out interviews with himself, in which he assumes that Mayor-elect Strong and Governor-elect Morton are to be simply his disbursing agents in the matter of patronage. Those gentlemen and the party must quickly decide whether they will themselves shake off this man, who is so coolly preparing to mount and ride them, or will leave it for outraged voters, two years hence, to strike down a Republican boss and corrupt ring, as they have this year brought low a Democratic boss and corrupt ring. It is a great piece of luck that the *Tribune* is now against Platt.

When the Legislature assembled last January, Platt was a "power," because Tammany was willing to pay him almost any price if he would prevent the Legislature from instigating a thoroughgoing investigation of Tammany government. He did his utmost to prevent any investigation whatever, but public clamor became so imperative that he was obliged to "pander" to it

so far as to allow an inquiry into the Police Department to be started. He tried to make this as harmless to Tammany as possible by putting a Rochester lawyer in charge of it, and it was quite harmless until Mr. Goff appeared in the court-room and took matters into his own hands. Even after the investigation had become serious, he still refused to allow it to be made general, the resolution as finally extended forbidding any inquiry outside departments connected with the police.

Tammany rewarded Platt for this service in time of great distress by giving him two "places" on the Police Board. It will be remembered that he kept those places open by preventing the Legislature from passing a single-headed police bill. In his opposition to that bill, Platt had the zealous aid of the *Tribune*, but he was dastardly enough, after he had got his two Republicans appointed to the Police Board by Mayor Gilroy, to turn about and order them to take away from the *Tribune* the \$20,000 "plum" of election advertising and give it to the *Press*. His use of the Legislature was extremely valuable to Croker, for if there had been a sweeping investigation ordered, Croker might have been involved, with other suddenly rich Tammany chiefs, and might have had to take the stand to explain where he got his money. If that had happened, Croker might not now be in a position to be talking complacently with newspaper reporters about the cause of the Tammany defeat. Of course Platt sacrificed his party's character and prospects when he made this bargain with Tammany, but that is the kind of politics he most delights to practise. If he could have had his way entirely, the revelations which Mr. Goff has made would never have been permitted. Instead of destroying Tammany, he would have spared it for "dealing" purposes. He has been overruled in this, and his occupation is completely gone. Sending out interviews with himself to the press for publication will not restore his lost power, neither will it save his two members of the Police Board. They must "go," with the regular Tammany incumbents.

We are glad that the Committee of Seventy is going to maintain its organization and continue its work until the municipal service is rid of all the Tammany unspeakables. The plan of action agreed upon by the Committee is an admirable one. It simply constitutes that body a vigilance committee to cooperate with the new mayor in securing good government for the city, in removing from office and punishing such public servants as have proved inefficient and unfaithful, and in framing and securing the passage by

the Legislature of such laws as will establish good government on a lasting foundation. Coöperation of this kind will be of great service to the mayor, giving him not merely advice and aid, but moral support against "influence" and "pressure" of the kind which is always exerted for partisan purposes and against the public interest. Mayor Strong's great work is to enable the people of the city to take their municipal government into their own hands, and it is both fitting and necessary that in this task he should have the aid of those representatives of the people through whose efforts he was elected to office. There is an enormous mass of work to be done, and no man has the strength to do it all alone. Tammany incompetents and rascals swarm in all branches of the city service, and to root them all out is a job of such herculean proportions that the decent people of the city should combine for its accomplishment.

The commanding position of the watchers in the service of the Good Government clubs, and the behavior of the police, were two significant phases of the recent election in this city. A year ago, anti-Tammany watchers were annoyed and ill-treated in every way, and found their worst discouragement in the very officers who were detailed to the polls ostensibly to enforce order and fair play. On November 6 all was changed, and election day, beginning with a fairer registration than usual, saw a more carefully scrutinized vote and count than ever before. The disposition to cheat and to intimidate was not absent; but in place of a universal zeal for cheating, insolently or jocularly as it pleased the inspector's humor, but always openly, there remained only a certain exercise of low cunning, and of the intimidation which black looks and bad language can effect. Neither weapon availed much against the admirably organized corps of watchers of the Good Government clubs, whose familiarity with the complicated provisions of the ballot act made them more than a match for any district tout; and whose dignified assertion of their rights (which their pocket-manual always enabled them to reinforce with legal authority), quiet manners, tact, and good humor, completely prevailed over the ignorant and profane politicians who tried to overawe them. In many instances the inspectors, appreciating their fairness and better information, even appealed to them to solve difficult questions, or to assist them in making up the tedious and complicated count.

The transformation of the police was no less striking. In the old days the officer in charge of a polling-place was *ex officio* the head devil of all. It was he who shouldered out the too inquisitive watcher, or "ran him in" if necessary; and who, even if he committed no overt act against him, was sure to repel, with every impli-

cation of menace, an appeal to enforce the law. On November 6, however, the returning watchers came in to headquarters, each reporting, as a matter of surprising fortune, the civility, efficiency, and impartiality of the patrolmen at his polling-place; each still more astonished to learn that this had been the uniform attitude during the day of the police throughout the city. Indeed, their behavior was so uniformly excellent that one must go further than the superintendent's orders to account for it, and must regard it as an evidence of the eagerness with which the rank and file of the force welcomed the chance to show that they felt and resented the disgrace brought upon them all, even to the manifest of them, by their blackmailing superiors.

The adoption of the new Constitution gives this State at one stroke so long a list of beneficent reforms that such good fortune seems incredible. The greatest single gain is the separation of municipal from State elections, so that, beginning with 1896, State officials will be chosen in the even-numbered years and city officials in the odd-numbered years. Most important also is the prohibition of pool-selling, book-making, and other forms of gambling, as well as lotteries. Another section of the first consequence is that which prohibits the use of public money in aid of sectarian schools. Radical changes are made in the judicial system, designed to effect the more prompt and certain administration of the laws. The long-standing abuse of the naturalization laws is abolished by a requirement that an alien must be a citizen for ninety days before voting, instead of ten, which will effectually stop the rush for papers just before election. Not only is the issue of passes and franks by railroad, telegraph, or telephone companies to public officers forbidden, but the offending official "shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall forfeit his office at the suit of the attorney-general." Other reforms include the requirement that civil-service reform principles shall be followed, the prohibition of "riders" on appropriation bills, and the requirement that legislative bills shall be printed for three days before passage; the preservation of the State forests; the abolition of the old rule that no more than \$5,000 damages shall be recoverable in case of death by accident; besides many minor changes of advantage. To offset these numerous and great gains is the provision forbidding contract labor in prison, which does not go into effect until 1897, and which public sentiment must be educated to get out of the Constitution.

The vote on the constitutional amendments, as is always the case, fell far short of the vote for State officers. The proportion of men who expressed themselves either way was small in this city, where not only did many ignorant voters refuse to use such ballots, but the number of

ballots to be handled was swollen by the submission of the consolidation and rapid-transit questions. Apparently there were only about half as many votes here on the amendments as for Governor. There are curious variations throughout the state. Franklin County, for example, cast 7,610 votes for Governor, but only 2,863—or little more than a third as many—on the new Constitution. Saratoga County, on the other hand, cast 13,017 votes on Governor, and 9,119—or more than two-thirds the number—on one of the constitutional questions. As a rule, the Democrats in the interior seem to have voted more generally against all of the propositions than the Republicans for them, and not one would have been carried except for the tremendous Republican majority.

The defeat of Chairman Wilson in the recent election is another example of the irony of fate, of which political life has so many examples. He is one of the few men in public life who have always commanded the respect of political opponents, and not seldom their sympathy as well. His career has been marked in the highest degree by zeal for the public welfare, in promoting which he has always used fair means. Nobody can say that he has ever struck a foul blow, or taken an unfair advantage, or used his position to wrong an adversary. Added to high moral qualities everybody acknowledges that he brought to the work which fell to his lot in Congress consummate ability and an industry which never flagged while his health lasted. Probably a retirement from Congress for a period will be beneficial to him by giving him opportunity for physical recuperation, which he could not otherwise gain. It would be a misfortune to the country if such a man were to be permanently removed from public life. He is another illustration of the injury inflicted on the State by compelling representatives to reside in the district.

It is but just to say that the Republicans have accepted their great victory in an excellent spirit. Some of the little fellows bark away, of course, about the instant restoration of McKinley duties, and there is some talk about the protectionist champion's being the "logical candidate" in 1896; but, for the most part, the Republican interpretation of the elections is that they gave a verdict in favor of good government and strict party responsibility, and against machine politics, whether in city, State, or nation. There is no great eagerness for the meeting of the new Congress, as there would be if it were thought possible or wise for it to do anything in particular with the tariff. In fact, the shrewder Republican leaders are displaying no little equanimity over the fact that they will not have to formulate any policy for more than a year. The vicissitudes of the past six years have taught them to walk softly

before the people, and not to run before they are sent. Republican leadership and party discipline appeared to great advantage in 1889-90, in everything except making an egregious mistake as to what the country wanted or would stand. That leadership and discipline will doubtless prove as effective in the next Congress, and, unless the bitter fruits of experience have been tasted in vain, far wiser, far more sensitive to public opinion.

Small politicians and petty political tricks look smaller than ever when caught in front of such monumental political demonstrations as that of Tuesday week. Think of Secretary Carlisle applying his giant intellect for four weeks to the question of Mr. Morton's coachman, in the hope of making a vote or two for Hill, and then imagine him getting word of Morton's 157,000 plurality! Think of Mr. Grace and Mr. Coudert turning such exceedingly sharp corners in order to be "regular Democrats," and then finding out that they were simply identifying themselves with the regularly smashed. Burke said that such "little arts and devices" were not to be wholly condemned, on the ground that "they diffusé occasional gayety over the severe brow of moral freedom." This is the only consolation we can offer so merry a wit as Mr. Coudert. The extraordinary amount of occasional gayety he now encounters will go far to make up for the severe brows he saw on all sides before the election.

The Republican newspapers of Kansas are entirely frank in saying that the victory of their party in that State does not mean an endorsement of McKinleyism. "It was not the silver question, nor tariff," says the *Topeka Capital*, "that won the election for the Republicans. It was the imbecile, corrupt, and dangerous State administration of L. D. Lewelling." The *Capital* makes an interesting review of the Populist movement in Kansas, which it says "was epidemic in character and partook more or less of dementia." Men who had always been sensible citizens lost the convictions of a lifetime as to the proper functions and powers of the Government, and accepted "the socialistic idea that it was a part of the duty of the Government to provide the citizen a home and pay his debts by manufacturing an irredeemable currency and loaning it to the citizen." It was the dream of "cheap" money at 1 or 2 per cent. interest which, in the *Capital's* opinion, has kept the Populist party alive longer than such rattle-brained organizations usually live, but it seems at last to be thoroughly done for.

The recovery of Wisconsin by the Republicans ends one of the most curious episodes in our politics. The State is normally Republican, but the Democrats carried it in 1890 and 1892, not only choos-

ing the Governor in each year and Presidential electors in the latter, but also securing both of the United States Senators; and all this not on any national issue between the parties, but by virtue of a local question which was needlessly raised. It was the passage of the "Bennett law" which precipitated the overturn of 1890, and it was the residuum of this force which retained the State in the Democratic column two years later. The law was designed only to secure the teaching of English in all public schools, but it was so framed that it enabled the Democrats to arouse the hostility of the large Lutheran element, which had been almost solidly Republican, against their old party as responsible for what was declared to be an attempt to interfere with their control of the education of their children. As the Democrats had made no opposition in the Legislature to the passage of the law, which indeed attracted but little attention at the time, there was much demagogism in their subsequent course, but it proved effectual. The most aggravating feature of the business to the Republicans is the fact that the whole "fuss" over the school issue was utterly unnecessary. The obnoxious law was subsequently repealed with their consent, and nobody now pretends that there is the slightest danger that the English language cannot predominate without the help of any statute.

The *Atlanta Constitution* says now that it objects to the Baltimore plan of currency reform because it makes the Government responsible for the banknotes. Its first objection was that the notes would not be as safe as Government notes. We pointed out that the Government's guarantee added to the bank's guarantee ought to make them better rather than worse than greenbacks. The *Constitution* now says:

"The Government of the United States has no more business to lend its credit to the bankers than it had to lend its credit to the farmers. The bank scheme is as populist as the sub-treasury scheme, and both are undemocratic and dangerous."

That has a very plausible sound, but there is no substance in it whatever. When the national banking system was founded, the framers of the law said: "The first requisite of a perfect currency system is perfect confidence in the notes. We will give this perfect confidence by means of a Government guarantee, and then we will take steps so that the Government shall never lose anything by it." That is the law now. The Government does not undertake merely to apply the proceeds of the security bonds to the redemption of the notes of a failed bank. It redeems them on presentation. In a conceivable case the bonds might not sell for the full amount of the outstanding notes. Nevertheless the Government's promise to redeem them has been given, and is just as sacred as its promise to redeem greenbacks.

As regards the new loan of \$50,000,000, all good citizens will sustain the efforts of the public authorities to uphold the public credit. The blame (if there be any) rests on Congress for withholding suitable and necessary powers from the Treasury Department. We hope that the Sherman amendment, or something like it, may be enacted at the coming short session. If it is not done, then, whenever, in the opinion of the executive, the gold reserve is too low, there will be a ten-year loan, and the interest on it will be equal to one-half of the principal, and there will be no way to escape the interest charge except by buying back the bonds in the open market at such premium as the holders may require. This, of course, would be a losing game, yet it was much practised during the decade 1880-1890 in buying up the $4\frac{1}{2}$ and 4 per cents, there being no other way to dispose of the Government's surplus. There are about \$25,000,000 of extended 2 per cents outstanding which are redeemable at any time. They sell at about 95 in the market. When the Treasury again has a surplus of income, as it probably will have next year, it will probably find these the most available securities to extinguish; but its situation then will be like that of a man borrowing money at 3 per cent. in order to pay a debt which is drawing only 2 per cent. The Pacific railroad 6's mature at irregular periods up to 1899. These amount to \$64,623,512 in the aggregate, and will furnish an outlet for that amount of surplus revenue, unless the railroads themselves furnish the money.

The capture of Port Arthur by the Japanese promises the speedy close of the war. It is more important, however, as a sign of the inability of the Chinese to fight than as the loss of a great fortress and arsenal. If there was any power of resistance left in them, they would have displayed it in defending this stronghold. In fact, the success of the Japanese shows that China is at the mercy of any conqueror who chooses to invade her, and that the oldest political organization in the world is on the point of breaking up. It probably owes its long duration to its isolation. The changed condition of modern society to which the Japanese have adapted themselves in a wonderful way, finds the Chinese unready and incapable, and the result will probably be now the commencement of the process of partition through which so much of the old Oriental world has passed into Western hands. India has gone to England, Central Asia to Russia, Persia exists only in name, and Turkey is kept alive by the jealousy of the great Powers. China has led a precarious existence for years, owing to the enormous number of European and Western speculators who want to "develop her resources," and they will get at her eventually; but nobody supposed that Japan would put in the entering wedge.

PARTIES DEFEATING THEMSELVES.

WE have now had in succession two national elections in which first one party and then the other was defeated by a tremendous majority. In 1892 the Republicans, although in possession of the Administration, secured only 145, or less than one-third, of the 444 electoral votes for President; and but 127, or barely more than one-third, of the 356 members of the House of Representatives. In 1894 the Democrats, although in possession of the Administration, have elected only about 100, or less than one-third of the House.

The most significant thing about these extraordinary results is the fact that in each election it was the doings of the party in power which defeated it, through the refusal of its members to go to the polls and continue it in power. What elected Cleveland in 1892 was not the fact that former Republicans in great numbers went to his support, but that they would not sustain Harrison. What has given the Republicans this week more than two-thirds of the next House, instead of barely one-third, is not a great rush of Democrats to the Republican side, but their refusal to vote for Democratic candidates.

When the returns of the last Presidential election came to be analyzed, it was found that, for the first time in the history of the Republican party, both in important States and in the whole country, it had, despite the increase of population, lost heavily as compared with the election four years before, while the Democratic remained almost stationary. Harrison's own State had polled 232,164 Republican votes in 1880, 238,463 in 1884, and 263,361 in 1888, but it returned only 255,615 in 1892; while Cleveland had 261,013 in 1888 and 262,740 in 1892—giving him the State in the latter year by 7,125 plurality on substantially the same vote as had lost it to him by 2,348 in 1888. New York gave the Republican candidate 555,544 votes in 1880, 562,005 in 1884, and 650,338 in 1888, but only 609,350 in 1892, while Cleveland, with no larger increase of the Democratic vote than from 635,965 to 654,868, was transformed from a loser by 14,373 plurality to a winner by 45,518. Ohio gave Garfield 375,048 votes, Blaine 400,082, and Harrison at his first election 416,054, but for reelection only 405,187, while Cleveland, polling 396,455 in 1888, was beaten by 19,599, and in 1892, with an increase of his vote to only 404,115, came within 1,073 of carrying the State. Republican losses were far heavier in States further West, so that in the whole country Harrison's vote sank from 5,440,708 to 5,175,202, while Cleveland's rose only from 5,536,242 to 5,554,226.

It was not more Democrats at the polls that gave Cleveland his great majorities in 1892 as compared with 1888, but fewer Republicans. In like manner it is already clear that what has given the Republicans a two-thirds majority in the next House is not any swelling of the Republican vote,

but only the shrinking of the Democratic vote. Leaving out of consideration New York, with its exceptional conditions arising from the Democratic revolt against Hill and Tammany, take Massachusetts and Ohio as States fairly typical of public sentiment on the seaboard and in the interior. Lacking the few votes of one small fishing town, the total for the former State in the last two elections is as follows:

	Rep.	Dem.	Rep. majority.
1893.....	192,613	156,916	35,697
1894.....	188,101	123,940	64,161

The Republican majority has been increased almost 30,000, but the Republican vote on November 6 was about 4,500 short of last year's. In other words, the Republican gains are entirely due to Democratic absences. The Ohio returns are not yet complete, but the Columbus correspondent of the New York *Tribune* estimates that the Republican vote was at least 30,000 smaller than last year, so that the increase of more than 50,000 in the Republican majority is due to the fact that a far greater number of Democrats—probably 80,000—would not go to the polls. The same state of things existed in the strongly Democratic State of Missouri. The defeat of "Silver-Dollar" Bland was caused, not by recruits to the Republican army, but by deserters from the Democratic—1,000 such in the one county of Callaway, polling 3,620 for Cleveland in 1892.

It is thus clear that last week, as two years ago last week, the party in power defeated itself by behavior which its own voters would not endorse. The Republicans carried the country in 1888 by promising a fair revision of the tariff in the interest of protection. Instead they gave the country McKinleyism. The result was that Republicans by tens of thousands who had voted for Harrison in 1888 would not vote for him, and did not vote for anybody, in 1892. The Democrats two years ago demanded the "speedy repeal" of the silver-purchase act, and promised a straightforward low-tariff measure. Instead, it took nearly three months to repeal the Sherman act, and then almost half of the Democrats in the Senate voted against redeeming the pledge, so that repeal was carried over the Democrats and Populists only by the large majority of Republicans on the right side. Nearly nine months more were occupied in getting a tariff bill of any sort through Congress, and then it was a measure so far short of what had been pledged that the Democratic President was unwilling to give it his signature. Democrats were disgusted with the record of their party this year, as Republicans with the record of their party two years ago; and they showed their disgust in the same way—not by voting for the opposition, but by not voting for anybody.

The lesson of these two elections ought not to be mistaken by the victorious party. The country has not declared for the Republicans; it has simply declared against

the Democrats. What the voters will do two years hence depends upon the developments of the next two years. If the Republicans are to win in 1896, they must show between now and then that they deserve to win. Party ties no longer bind members of either political organization to its support unless they are convinced that it ought to be supported. A more fortunate state of things for the country could not be imagined.

THE NEXT POLITICAL ISSUES.

SENATOR SHERMAN of Ohio has been quoted in a published interview since the election as saying that he did not consider the present result as an endorsement of the McKinley tariff, or as a demand on the part of the people for radical measures. As the interview represents, without doubt, the opinions of the party which will be in control of the House a twelve-month hence, and probably of the Senate also, it possesses much interest at this time. Mr. Sherman said:

"I do not regard the present result as an endorsement of the McKinley bill or a demand on the part of the people for radical tariff legislation. There will undoubtedly be some members who will regard it as such, but I hardly believe the party will enter into any extreme legislation of this kind. I would not favor any great increase of duties. On the stump in the campaign I said very plainly that I was a moderate protectionist, and wanted only such duties as would insure a fair rate of wages for the workmen of this country. I believe in so placing the duties as to allow a healthy foreign competition. If I should see that any duty was making a monopoly, I would take that duty off. The Republicans went to an extreme on the question in 1890, because they had absolute control of all branches of the Government. If there had been any check, they would not have done so."

Mr. Sherman's views are substantially the same as those announced by ex-Speaker Reed during the campaign. They are in accord also with those of Senator Allison. Indeed, there is every reason to believe that they are in harmony with those of the thinking and reflecting members of the Republican party everywhere. It is most probable, too, that these conservative views will gain strength by time, so that when the party really becomes able to carry its views into effect, it will find the tariff issue moribund and little suited to the purposes of political discussion. It is very likely, also, that the Hawaiian Islands as a party issue will have passed out of the range of vision. If the present republic of Hawaii maintains itself, as seems likely, there will be no need for us to interfere. Most people will have forgotten the existence of Queen Liliuokalani two years hence, and all will be able to divest themselves of party prejudices in dealing with the question.

Nobody seems to expect a revival of the sectional issue in any form. The Republicans have made more inroads upon the "solid South" in the recent election than at any or all others since the carpet-baggers were thrust out. It happens that their success in the South is coincident with the repeal of the only federal election law that they depended upon to

give them a standing in that quarter of the Union. The result shows that the way to gain votes in the South is not to array blacks and whites in two hostile camps, but to divide the whites, and give them an incentive to befriend the blacks as political allies. We in the North have been a long time in learning this lesson. It was contrary to all our preconceptions. As force was required to overthrow slavery, we thought that force and nothing else would serve to give the black man his political rights. We have been thirty years in learning that force never would accomplish that result. We are now learning that as soon as force is wholly withdrawn, the problem begins to solve itself. If the Republican party were to-day in possession of Congress and the executive, it would not reenact the federal election law; still less would it seek to enact the force bill of 1890, which made such an excitement and was lost by only a single vote in the Senate.

If the tariff and the force bill are dead or dying issues, what is to take their place? Evidently the currency question is the matter of most immediate concern. It is the one which causes most uneasiness. It is the thing that is always getting us into hot water. It produced the panic of last year. It is the cause of the present depression in business. It is the rock ahead at all times. It furnishes the reason for the proposed new issue of bonds. If the Government were not charged with the task of "maintaining parity" between silver and gold, there would be no question of a bond issue. The cost of an issue of \$50,000,000 5 per cent. bonds is \$25,000,000, the interest charge being \$2,500,000 per year for ten years. If it is really necessary, that is the end of argument. If it is not necessary, the burden ought not be put upon the taxpayers. There will be a dispute, and probably an acrimonious one, on the question of the necessity of the loan, and nobody will be quite satisfied. It goes to prove again, for the hundredth time, that the Government ought to have no concern with the money question beyond certifying to the purity of the coin and regulating the issues of the banks. These two functions are akin to each other. Both of them aim to prevent cheating, and when these ends are accomplished the Government has done all that it can usefully do.

The political party which takes this idea for its guidance will be the winning party in the next five years. This may seem to be a short time to deal with so weighty a question, but it must be borne in mind that it has been under discussion continuously ever since the close of the war. We have had experience running through a whole generation, and it may be safely said that what we have still to accomplish presents no tougher problem than the resumption of specie payments, which was resolved upon in 1875. Meanwhile there can be no doubt that the elections of Tuesday have made silver "a back number" in Ameri-

can politics. The Populists of Kansas, Nebraska, and Colorado have received a crushing defeat. Bland has been cast out by his own district. Bryan, who was perhaps a more ugly customer than Bland, has been rejected as a candidate for the Senate from Nebraska, and will not be in the next House. Even more significant than these results is the fact that in the only State where the Republicans adopted a worse platform than the Democrats on this question they were defeated. In the State of California there has for a long time been a neck-to-neck race between the two parties to see which of them should come nearest to Populism and Socialism. The Republicans took the lead this year and went for free coinage of silver without any safeguards, while the Democrats stipulated for parity between the two metals. California stands out as the most conspicuous if not the sole exception among the Northern States from the line of Republican victories of the year. The silver plank of the platform was particularly odious because the business community in California is more wedded to the gold standard than in any other State in the Union, having rejected greenbacks as currency during the war and being scarcely reconciled to them even now.

The matter of most importance is that the Republicans are now able to dispense with the mining camps as a political factor. The States of Nevada, Idaho, and Montana are no longer necessary to them. The threats made by their leading politicians that unless they could have free silver they would abandon the party, are no longer terrifying. The Republican centre of gravity is thrown east of the Missouri River, and this insures a predominance of sound-money views in the next Congress. It is not necessary to cultivate Populism or any kind of financial heresy in order to control the House. Moreover, no movement for silver or any other bastard currency is to be expected this winter. Even if such a movement had a chance of success in Congress, the veto of Mr. Cleveland would kill it. On the other hand, there is every reason to look for wholesome financial legislation by way of amendment to the national-banking act. As soon as it is generally recognized that silver has got its death-blow, the public mind will be ready to consider some rational scheme for currency reform, like the Baltimore plan, for example. This is a platform which anybody can stand on, since it does not run counter to any existing currency system or to any existing party creed.

NON-PARTISAN ADMINISTRATION.

We fear very much that a good many people who voted on Tuesday week for Strong and a non-partisan administration have not as yet, in spite of thirty years of civil-service-reform agitation, a very clear idea of what non-partisan administration is. What many suppose to be non-partisan adminis-

tration is really bi-partisan administration. That is, they think that a non-partisan administration can be set up by dividing the offices equally between the two parties; which, if any improvement at all on the old partisan system, is a very slight one. The principle for which the civil-service reformers have always contended, and which they have finally succeeded in introducing into a large portion of the civil service, is that in appointments to office the political opinions of the appointee shall not be considered or even inquired into; that nothing shall count in filling the place except *fitness*. Any attempt to divide offices between the parties keeps alive the poison of the old system; that is, the idea on the part of the employee that he has got his office *because* he is a Democrat or a Republican. A man who enters the public service with this notion in his head can only in rare cases be a faithful public servant. He is always sure to feel that he owes a higher allegiance to his party than to the Government, and that therefore, as long as he is a good party man, his defects as an official are of minor importance. The leading vice of Tammany lies in its having pushed this principle to its extreme limit. In that Society the idea that the office-holder owes anything whatever to the city has completely perished. Each office-holder thinks of himself as the employee of "the organization" solely, and it is this which makes trials of Tammany men by other Tammany men, for offences against the city, so very ludicrous. As long as it cannot be shown that they have been in some way unfaithful to the organization, they are always safe from any sort of penalty.

To attempt to divide offices equally between the parties is to keep in full activity the idea that the city is a political and not a business organization. It is against this idea that the municipal reformers have now been fighting for many years. It is in the growth and spread of the idea that the city is a business organization, and nothing else, that all hope of good municipal government in America lies. If, for example, Mr. Strong should announce his intention of dividing the offices equally between the parties, it would operate at once as notice to the bosses and machine men that there were so many offices at the disposal of the party. They would meet at once to consider the proper division of them. They would decide among themselves who had the best claims to them; and the foundation of the claims would be, almost invariably, activity in caucuses and conventions, and influence of some kind or another (generally illicit) over voters. Having settled this, they would start at once for the city hall, and the "pressure" on Mr. Strong from the two sets of bosses and workers would begin, and would be kept up until they wore out his patience and compelled him, out of regard to his health and peace, to make appointments of which his higher judgment disapproved. Not only

this, but no sooner had he made them than the Boys would rejoice over them as proofs that the pretence of non-partisanship was "bosh," that there was still something in politics for the politician; that the winning of elections was a trade like another, in which a fair livelihood was to be had by a diligent man.

A non-partisan administration of city affairs means the filling of offices for fitness only. If Mr. Strong means to administer in this way, he will manage the city precisely as he manages his bank. In fact he has promised to do so. When he has a vacancy, he will look around for a good man, and he will ask for testimonials not as a party man, but as a good clerk, or accountant, or lawyer, or engineer. That is what he does at the Central National Bank, and this is what the great bulk of those who supported him expect him to do at the city hall. If it got about that he was dividing places at the Central National according to the political views of the applicants, and with only minor reference to character and specific experience, there would, we warrant, be a very rapid withdrawal of deposits and a very rapid sale of stock. People would conclude he had gone demented. Now we want to produce a similar state of mind, if possible, on the part of the public with regard to the administration of the mayoralty. We want to make the voters consider a mayor who bestows places for other reasons than fitness as either knavish or demented. Until we have accomplished this, there will be no radical, and, above all, no permanent, improvement in the government of New York or any other American city.

To the argument that he could not do this if he tried, that the politicians would never stand it, we answer that this very objection was made a hundred times over to the placing of United States officers under the civil-service rules; but 45,000 of them are now so placed, and even if the politicians have not become outwardly reconciled to the change, they now never think of resisting it. So, also, when Mayor Grace appointed General Newton to the office of commissioner of public works, on account of his eminent fitness for the place now held by Mike Daly, who cried out or objected? Hundreds of wretched creatures like Daly doubtless sighed for the salary, but what sensible or decent citizen found fault with Mayor Grace's disposal of it? Over in Brooklyn, in fact, we see the plan in full operation amid general applause. The great bulk of the patronage in that city is in the hands of the commissioner of public works. Well, whom did Mayor Schieren appoint to that office? Why, Alfred T. White, an Independent and a philanthropist of long experience in public improvements. The minor offices have been filled in much the same way, with competent men, without reference to their politics, and the proof is that Mayor Schieren is abhorred to-day by the machines of both par-

ties, but admired and applauded by men who really care for their city.

The greatest obstacle to the reform is the public's want of familiarity with it and consequent doubts about its feasibility. But this is an objection to all changes for the better. If we succumbed to it, we should have to abandon civilization itself and go back to our wigwams and deerskins. For civilization consists in improvements, and improvements are always novelties. To do nothing or attempt nothing that people are not used to would make a China of the United States. To accustom his countrymen to better ways is the highest work of every one who loves his country.

THE FUTURE OF TAMMANY.

THERE is a good deal of talk just now of reorganizing Tammany, and it has a good deal of interest for all classes of citizens, for even if Tammany should disappear, the possibility of Tammany will always remain unless there should be a complete disappearance of political partisanship among its opponents. It must not be forgotten that Tammany on November 6 polled 108,000 votes, in spite of all the exposures of the last six months. These 108,000 are a very formidable factor in city affairs. They show that there is among us a very large body of persons who do not care particularly for good government, who do not object to government by corruption or intrigue, to whom ignorance and vice are not blemishes in public officials, and on whom discussion and exposure do not make any impression. We must remember that Tweed was reelected in his district after all his frauds and thefts had been laid before the public. The Tammany voters are now controlled, and always have been controlled, by Tammany by means of the police and police justices, and by the offices. Through the offices Tammany secures competent "district leaders"; through the police and police justices, it keeps the rank and file in order, partly by threats, partly by persecution, and partly by intercession at the police courts and civil justices' courts. A district leader often spends his whole mornings at the police courts, furnishing "pulls" and bail for drunkards and other disorderly and criminal persons.

This body is not likely to diminish in this city. It is fed by immigration, by the drift of adventurers and broken-down men from the country, and by what theologians call the "natural depravity" of the human species. It will stand ready to jump into power again every year of the next fifty. It likes power and the good things which power gives, and it has no scruples about modes of getting power. It will therefore furnish a constant temptation to the class of politicians who rule Tammany to try their old games over again. It is what we might call the raw material of their trade. In three years after the fall of Tweed, which blew the wigwam to atoms, the Tammany society was reorganized and ready for action, and had induced large

numbers of people to believe that it was going to be decent this time, etc., etc.

Now this very thing will happen over again, and sooner than most people now imagine, unless there is a complete change of heart among partisans on both sides about city affairs. The Committee of Seventy has shown what can be done by union against the common enemy, but so did the Committee of Seventy of 1871. Nevertheless, the practice of running party candidates for the mayoralty on federal issues began again as early as 1880, and was continued steadily until 1890, Tammany gaining ground all the time, until in 1888 a Tammany liquor-dealer and "sport" was actually welcomed as a deliverer of the city. The Democrats said, "This is a Democratic city: why should we not have the mayoralty?" The Republicans said, "We have 100,000 votes: why should we always be the ones to yield?" Whenever there was any sign or prospect of a secession of decent Democrats from Tammany, the Republican machine always marshalled its forces to rush in at the breach. At last the city was treated to six solid years of Tammany, and we know with what result.

We cannot help hoping that we have reached the end of these mistakes and delusions. The Committee of Seventy have shown, more conspicuously than ever before, the power which, even in this city of many nationalities and creeds, lies in the union of good people. We believe the Good Government clubs are doing invaluable work in turning the lesson to account. They are spreading the non-partisan (not bi-partisan) view of city affairs. It is especially important that they should hammer it into the brains of the young, for the men who have conducted this campaign against Tammany will be gone from the stage in twenty years, as the men of 1871 are now, and in about twenty years Tammany regains its old strength. Tammany will surely come again, unless young and old get into the way of looking at the city as they look at their bank, and think no more about the mayor's politics than they think about the politics of the cashier who keeps their accounts. All the well-governed cities of the world are governed on this business plan, all the badly governed, on the other.

The plan of going down among the rank and file of Tammany with books and pamphlets, and University Settlements, and popular lectures, we know has merit. It is a work of humanity and civilization which is always in order. But they deceive themselves who think the city can be saved by any such missionary work. What Tammany offers to the ignorant and poor is always something more palpable and succulent than enlightenment, or free reading-rooms, or cheap coffee. It can never be met and vanquished except by union among the honest, industrious, and intelligent. These are now in a majority and have always been in a majority. A great commercial city like New York

could not exist and prosper if they were not in a majority. Whenever they cease to be in a majority, capital and labor will both begin to move away from Manhattan Island.

POSTERS IN LONDON.

LONDON, October 23, 1894.

AMONG collectors, the poster is the latest fad; and this in New York as in London and Paris. Attention has already been called to it and its artistic possibilities by an article in the *Century*. I do not doubt that shows of American collections have already been held. But the first English exhibition has just been opened at the Royal Aquarium in London. Within its limits, it is so thoroughly representative that from it one cannot fail to learn what has been done, and what is being done, to justify the prevailing interest in modern methods of street decoration.

I say within its limits, since, as the editor of the catalogue explains, the collection has been all but entirely restricted to French and English work. There is nothing from Germany, nothing from America—an omission much to be regretted. But, after all, it was in France that the artistic treatment of the *affiche* was first accepted seriously, and the French artists who have had such an influence upon the designers of other countries have been here gathered together in full force. On the unaccustomed walls of the Aquarium hang almost all of Chéret's most famous designs, almost all of Grasset's and Willette's. Lautrec challenges comparison with Ibels, Guillaume with Steinlen. So little favoritism has been shown that from Aman-Jean and the Rosicrucians you may pass on to Lunel and the Realists, from Anquetin to Bonnard, from Vallaton to Boutet-de-Monvel. Not one man of note or pretension has been overlooked. And the English series is as complete. If opportunity be given to study the really admirable achievements of Dudley Hardy and Beardsley, whose inspiration is frankly French, you are also confronted with the failures of Herkomer and Walter Crane, who, had they been less independent, might have proved more successful; while even the promising cartoons of men whose names are as yet unknown have been included. A collection so exhaustive must give to the least observant some idea of the present condition of the art it illustrates.

Due allowance may be made for indifferent hanging—the posters are unnecessarily crowded, without the smallest space between—and for the drawback of seeing indoors designs intended to be looked at in the open street; but even then it cannot be denied that the impression received is, in a measure, one of disappointment. For, though just now in Paris the system of out-door advertising is carried to such an excess that one foresees the inevitable reaction in the immediate future, the exhibition proves indisputably that artists are only beginning to realize what a poster should be. There was a time, but two or three years ago, when Chéret was believed to have brought it to the highest possible degree of perfection. He came honestly by his reputation; for if he was not the first to design posters (you may see now at the "Exposition du Livre" examples published in France far earlier in the century), if he was not the first to consider their artistic as well as commercial requirements (Fred Walker's poster for the "Woman in White," hanging at the Aquarium, and Herkomer's early attempts in the same direction, anticipated him

in this respect), to him still belongs the credit of having created a demand for the artistic, as opposed to the purely commercial, variety. His designs, however, already seem miniature and experimental when compared to the work of men whose master he virtually was.

The reason is not far to seek. There are three all-important essentials to be remembered in designing a poster: it must draw and hold the attention in the very streets and squares and stations where the attention is most readily distracted; it must fulfil its commercial purpose by explaining its meaning at a glance; it must accomplish its artistic end by its beauty of color and line, and the manner in which the given space is filled. What happens when the commercial needs are unduly emphasized, it is needless to point out: whoever has waited for a train in an English railway station, or passed by the hoardings of London streets, knows to his cost. But, so far as the poster is concerned, failure is well-nigh as disastrous when the artistic interest preponderates. Take, for instance, Aman-Jean's fine design to advertise the Rose-Croix exhibition; what did its loveliness of line and tenderness of tone avail when it was called upon to compete with gay announcements of a new pill, and florid invitations to the Moulin Rouge? Or, again, take two of the most delightful examples in the collection: Bonnard's *affiches* for the *Revue Blanche* and 'France Champagne'; in the first, a delicate harmony in gray, the inscription (commercially foremost in importance) is so fantastically lettered that it is all but impossible to read; in the second, the tender ambers and subtle curves and swirls with which the feeling of champagne has been carried throughout, would not tell in the least when seen from the necessary distance. Chéret has not erred by going to either extreme; but in the ugliness and vulgarity of lettering he has made too great concession to commerce—in the elaboration of detail, too great concession to art. His "Loie Fuller," with the swirl of its rainbow-hued drapery; his Saxoline, with its well studied rendering of reflected light; his "Pastilles Géraudel," with its gayety and grace—all too familiar now to need description—could not well be surpassed. But even in them is something of that confusion, due to excessive detail, which is now felt to be a defect in the majority of his designs, as well as in those of Grasset, for all their stateliness and elegance. Lautrec, more almost than any one, has shown what can be done by intelligent leaving out. His simple, flat surfaces, his sharp, well-defined outlines, his broad masses are, in the end, far more effective than Chéret's careful modelling and lingering regard for tone and atmosphere. The simple figure of "Aristide Bruant," for example, silhouetted against a dead-white background, leaps out from the wall, while Chéret's nymphs and dancers, by contrast, become confused and shadowy. Certain violence there must be; thus, Lautrec's own *affiches* for "L'Estampe Originale" and "Confetti," charming as they are, because of their more refined color and composition, lose, when placed by the side of his "Moulin Rouge" and brutal, but fine, "Reine de Joie."

The importance of the silhouette in the poster, thanks chiefly to Lautrec, is being more and more realized—the younger men are using it almost exclusively. Certainly, the best designs in the show are those in which it has been adopted. Probably there is not one that answers its purpose as advertisement better than Gausson's "Léssive Figaro." In the

well-known *affiches* of Ibels and Guillaume and Steinlen, the silhouette is also accentuated; and again, though not quite simplified enough, in Willette's girl in purple against a rich wall-paper, which she might be supposed to advertise rather than the cocoa she is meant to force upon you.

But while a tremendous stride in advance has been made since Chéret led the way, the cleverest and most distinguished French designers have still much to learn. They do not seem as yet to understand, as the Japanese understand, the value of beauty and grace in long flowing lines; they have not yet developed that wonderful sense of proportion and balance which delights in the simplest kakemono and woodcut. Nor, indeed, have they mastered the first principles of artistic lettering. Boutet-de-Monvel alone realizes that the inscription should be part of the design, and this realization makes his little red-and-rose poster for some one's dentifrice far more satisfactory to the eye than the more ambitious "Bruant" by Lautrec, or "Yvette Guilbert" by Ibels.

Lettering really is better appreciated in England. Mervin and Steer both turn it to good account in the posters designed by themselves for their own shows; posters, unfortunately, which have no other merit. But the English designers mostly reveal the same virtues and vices as the French, from whom they have borrowed so largely, and this is the reason why I may seem to have less to say about them. Of course I do not mean Walter Crane, who, pursuing his own methods and filling his poster for the Paris Hippodrome with detail that would not be out of place in an illustration, is so absolutely ineffective that, had I not consulted my catalogue, I should not have discovered his presence—nor of Prof. Herkomer, who, though to be applauded as a pioneer, has not known how to express his sometimes excellent ideas. But Dudley Hardy, in the yellow figure, with its amusing angular outlines, that announces *To-Day*, in his mass of red skirts that advertise the "Gaiety Girl," like Lautrec, gains his effects by the strength and simplicity of his silhouette—like Lautrec, mars it by the commonplace of his inscription. And so again with Greiffenhagen, whose vivid red figure against yellow proclaims the existence of the *Pall Mall Budget*, and with Raven-Hill, who introduces "Pick-Me Up" by somewhat similar means; and so again with Beardsley, who balances his simple spaces of color on a white background with a dexterity that lends new interest to the "Pseudonym" and "Autonym Libraries," to which he invites notice.

However, so far in England nothing at once so original and effective has been done as the designs of Messrs. Beggarstaff, the name by which the two young artists choose to be introduced to the public, and so far, naturally, no man of business has had the courage to publish them. These designers also rely upon the silhouette, but they have simplified it still further. Thus, in one cartoon, for the "Blue" of the first manufacturer who has the sense to see its good points, a black figure is outlined in white against a black background, and the only color is the one spot—a large spot—of blue in the tub at her feet. It is badly hung in the Aquarium, and the Steinlens and the little Gausson are not far away. But it asserts itself with unmistakable power, and is as distinguished as vigorous. The other three are only less striking, and the artists, once the chance to decorate the hoardings is offered, seem destined to inaugurate a new departure in the art of poster-designing. N. N.

BAEDEKER AND THE BERGAMASK.

ALASSIO, October 5, 1894.

A NOTE in the *Nation* of August 16, relative to the photographs taken by Lotze of the art treasures at Bergamo, set me to thinking that I knew very little of that city. A visit made there many years ago had been cut short by untoward circumstances—circumstances that had somewhat spoiled such memories as remained to me, and left me with a distaste for the very name of Bergamo. But prejudices burn themselves out, and this note had the effect of sending me to revise my impressions.

Needless to say that revision meant revulsion. The ancient town, situated on the last spur of the Bergamask Alps, and looking southward over the boundless Lombard plain, could not fail to impress deeply any lover of landscape. The plain has the majesty and the infinite variety of the sea, and its northern boundary is broken into numberless headlands with interlying valleys rich in culture, and everywhere, bedded among the trees, the campanili and antique towers of a long civilization, for Bergamo boasts of having been before Rome was.

The moment was propitious for seeing the place at its best. It was lovely September weather and the annual fair was going on. The curious miniature city solidly built in stone for this recurring market, at other times shut and desolate, was now alive—a rectangular citylet, with all streets crossing at right angles, and, at their ends, rather pompous gates in the taste of the eighteenth century, as are also the 600 shops, arranged according to a predetermined plan, stamped with the formal dignity which that century has impressed upon such of its creations as, for example, Turin. The fair has lost its importance, and most of its streets are as empty as Tadmor in the wilderness. Only the two central ones are full—chiefly with various sorts of Cheap-John concerns—but they are a very pleasant sight, with their clashing of gay colors, their throngs, the awnings stretched quite across the street (in old Italian fashion), turning them into galleries of tempered light, with far-away glimpses at the end of the hot glare outside, and, in the centre, at the meeting of the two ways, a fountain where fantastic beasts make a coolness with the plashing of many water jets.

The fair, however, seems still to draw a good many people, and Bergamo has in general the animation of a much larger city. The cafés are doing a "roaring" trade, the theatre gives an extra season with "Dinorah" and Ponchielli's "Gioconda," to say nothing of a circus and many minor shows. To crown the bustle, it is the moment of the autumn conscription, and hands of country youth, with feathers and gay ribbons in their hats and invariably the paper bearing the number they have drawn, are strolling about the town celebrating the good or evil fortune of the day. Sometimes they are singing a bacchic strain interrupted by screams, sometimes, to the accompaniment of "concertinas," they go waltzing two and two along the double line of flagstones in the middle of the street, and sometimes a dozen, arm in arm, stretching from sidewalk to sidewalk, go thundering a chorus, so sure, so strong, and so sweet, that, what with the beauty and the pathos that is never absent from conscriptions, the sound brings the sudden tears and keeps the eyes blurred with them as long as it can be heard.

And the treasures of art mentioned by the *Nation* are all here, with many others equally worthy knowing, but for all that much less

known than they ought to be. There are various indications of this last fact, *e. g.*, the inns of the old-fashioned Italian type, quite sufficient in their way so long as fine weather and good health last, but with no hint of the superfluities with which the modern "grand hotel" satisfies the demands of the tourist; or, again, the uniform helpfulness and courtesy of the people, who have not yet learned small extortions nor the money value of kind offices.

Of course there is a reason for this idyllic state of things, and, whatever it may be, the guide-book contributes to its continuance. The judicious Baedeker, by whose light most of our countrymen now travel, is deplorably insufficient with regard to Bergamo. Gsell-Fels (who tells you that half a day is enough!) is fuller, but this author is subject to such surprising incursions of the marvellous as to make one look upon him with suspicion. (Thus, writing of the place from which I date, he says that it has a deaf-and-dumb asylum, shipbuilding yard, and a coral fishery! Heaven knows where he found a warrant for any of the three statements. He goes on to say that in our gardens are seen the *first* date palms. Where does such an observer keep his eyes?) Better than either is the 'Guide Joanne,' and, with the combined aid of this and the Gsell-Fels, one may manage to see most of the sights of Bergamo. The Baedeker may be left at the bottom of your trunk.

For those, however, who are hapless enough to find themselves dependent on the aid of this last, it may not be amiss to give here a bit of supplement: it may help such as would have an adequate idea of the riches of Bergamo and of what is their special distinction. In a general way this idea is given in the admirable note of the *Nation*, but I hope to show that it is worth while to complete that. "Cariani and Previtali can be studied there alone, and no other one place in the world is so rich in Lottos and Moronis." It will add to the admiration excited by the first-named master to know that two beautiful portraits in the Galleria Lochis, ascribed by their labels and by the catalogue to Sebastiano del Piombo, are really, according to Morelli and the excellent director of the museum, by Cariani. They will be so ascribed in the next edition of the catalogue, though the labels, from respect for the conditions imposed by the testator of the collection, must remain unchanged. As for Lotto, not only is Bergamo richer in the number of his pictures than any other city of Europe, but they are the work of his best years, from about 1513 to 1525, so that nowhere else can he be studied to equal advantage. In his earlier years he painted in the manner of Gian Bellini, examples of which time may be seen in the Louvre and in London. Afterwards, says Vasari, he attached himself to the manner of Giorgione; but it is doubtful if he was ever in relations with Giorgione, and Vasari, who never saw the works executed at Bergamo and does not mention them in his *Life*, judged Lotto only from his earliest and his latest performances. What we see at Bergamo, done in the fulness of his power, may suggest at times Giorgione or Leonardo, simply (according to Morelli) as a result of similar development in the three men and inspiration of the same *Zeitgeist*. The real affinity of Lotto would seem to be with Correggio. One often vividly suggests the other, probably merely because of a certain kinship of nature affected by like circumstances.

The portraits by Moroni are a most delightful feature of the Accademia Carrara, but then fine portraits by Moroni are to be found in

many galleries. Just so with some other masters, as, *e. g.*, Borgognone, who is here in force. The great effect, the peculiar *bouquet*, so to speak, is given to the place by Lotto. It is said that there are more than twenty authentic pictures of his in Bergamo, and still others in the neighborhood. Notably at Alzano, a drive of seven kilometres from the city, there is a superb altarpiece of the death of St. Peter Martyr. I shall have occasion to mention this church in another connection.

Perhaps the most peculiar treat of all is that given at Trescorre Balneareo, a place not mentioned in Baedeker although it has been for hundreds of years a frequented resort, to say nothing of its unique treasure, sufficient in itself to make the place one of pilgrimage. There is here a little chapel attached to the villa of Count Suardi, the walls and ceiling of which (excepting the altar-niche, done by an earlier hand) are entirely covered with frescoes by Lotto. The works in oil left by the master are numerous enough, but in fresco—aside from some late works at Recanati and some examples in and about Bergamo, more or less damaged or more or less apocryphal—this is all that we have by which to judge him. It is but a tiny place, only about eight metres long by half as many in breadth. On one windowless side there is in the middle a life-sized figure of the Redeemer, and at his feet the family Suardi, who commissioned the work. The rest of this side, excepting a frieze of alternate prophets and sibyls that runs around the chapel, is occupied by the history of St. Barbara—the figures small, of course, some of them minute, but all of them full of expression. On the opposite side, painted, it seems to me, with more simplicity and largeness of manner, is the story of St. Chiara. The west end, unfortunately damaged, contains the martyrdom of St. Catherine and what appears to be a scene from the life of Mary Magdalene. The ceiling, between rude rafters, is covered with vines, through which little angels are peeping, suggesting irresistibly the famous parlor of the Benedictine convent at Parma, done by Correggio; the more as the infants of Lotto smile as sweetly and are as graceful as those of his better-known contemporary. It will at once be seen that the importance of this chapel is not small; its omission in Baedeker is unaccountable, considering that both Gsell-Fels and the 'Guide Joanne' speak of it. A beautiful monograph by Prof. Pasino Locatelli has been printed for the Count Suardi, but the edition—limited to 300 numbered copies—was only for private circulation, and is, of course, difficult to find.

Those who may be induced by the mention in Baedeker to go to see the Lotto at Alzano will be rewarded beyond their expectation. Not only is the altar-piece of Lotto worth the journey, but the church, profusely adorned, contains a good Tintoretto; and a chapel with three pictures by Tiepolo, pallid in color but graceful and elegant in their mannerism. You were unprepared for these, but there is more to come. There are three sacristies. In the first, the cupboards for the vestments and articles of church use are superb examples of seventeenth-century (1662) carving by a Bergamask artist, Fantoni. In the second the presses were done by the Fantoni sons. They are of incredible richness, surmounted by a series of medallions and full reliefs of such exquisite workmanship that they are sheltered by glass cases. In the third is beautiful inlaid work by a woman, the *figlia Caniani*, daughter of an artist who contributed to the adornment of this church, as also to that of the Cap-

pella Colleoni at Bergamo. A series of pilasters ornamented with leaves and fruits naturalistically treated are very fine, as also the bases with birds and foliage. The same artist did four of the intervening panels, and then lost her eyesight from the strain put upon it by the delicate work.

After seeing so many things unnoted in one's Baedeker, it will scarcely be wondered at that he should make no mention of the churches of St. Andrea, where there are two good Previtalis and a fine Moretto (badly seen by morning light), of St. Michele al Pozzobianco (another of the rare frescoes of Lotto), of St. Grata and of the Carmine (Salmeggia and others), of St. Agostino (late Gothic façade), nor of the charming frescoes by Tiepolo in the Cappella Colleoni, nor of many important works in Santa Maria Maggiore. He indeed says that there are ancient mural paintings, much injured, under a tapestry. It is therefore a pleasant surprise when one finds a most characteristic work dated 1347, what there is left of it well preserved. It must be seen on a bright morning toward noon, when the sacristan will open the south doors to let in enough light to illuminate the wall while he lifts aside the tapestry. Neither Baedeker nor any other guide mentions several other interesting remains of fresco of the same period in different parts of the church; all in out-of-the-way places, and, to be got at, requiring the intervention of the sacristan. S. K.

Correspondence.

OUR POLITICAL FLUCTUATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is no doubt that the disappointment of spoils-seekers has something to do with the political reactions which follow the introduction of a new party into power, as you point out in the *Nation* for November 8. This is not enough, however, to account for the magnitude of the "tidal waves" which have followed changes of administration in so many instances. The true explanation is to be found in the same disposition on the part of the voters which, in the case of gamblers, leads them to "hedge." In case of any large political movement there is a considerable body of voters who are startled at the possible consequences of changes, and, because of pure timidity, and without reference to the merits of the case, at once block the wheels. They are in a state of mind that leads them to be easily affected by scares, and they magnify every possible evil, until they go, like a runaway horse, plunging into they know not what, simply because they are afraid of something, they know not what.

At present the point at issue is the tariff, and these voters, frightened at the possible consequences of the McKinley act, went over to the opposition in flocks and droves, and then, startled at the possible consequences and the apparent magnitude of the results of their own action, went back again in like manner. It is pure ignorance and timidity on the part of well-meaning people that leads to these extraordinary apparent fluctuations in the trend of popular sentiment. It requires but little inquiry among the voters in any community to find that there are hundreds who admit frankly that they do not know anything about the questions at issue, but are simply feeling their way as best they can. The consequent fluctuations in the expression of popular sentiment at the polls do not represent intelligent

and well-grounded convictions, but simply the timidity growing out of consciousness of ignorance and incompetence.

So far as the tariff is concerned, these fluctuations of sentiment will continue until it becomes clear to the masses of the people what are the real effects of such legislation upon the interests of the country as a whole, whereupon action based upon knowledge will take the place of inexplicable changes based upon fear.

Yours truly, M. A. VEEDEER.

LYONS, N. Y., November 9, 1894.

[There is something in this explanation, no doubt, and certainly it would be difficult for the Republican Congressmen-elect to define just what mandate they have received from the electors. It will be still more difficult a year hence, when they become invested with the power of shaping a policy. The most potent cause of these fluctuations, apart from the evident weakening of party bonds all over the country, is, in our opinion, precisely the absurdly long interval between election and taking office. This insures a want of continuity between feeling and action, without a counterbalancing advantage in a period for reflection and deliberation.—ED. NATION.]

THE LOUISVILLE UPRISING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: New York city is not the only place where good citizens have a right to congratulate themselves upon having broken the hold of an infamous and conscienceless clique of tyrants. Gang rule has been the bane of Louisville for many years. "The Buckingham," a low variety theatre, has been our Tammany, and has kept a corresponding place in our local affairs. John Wallen holds locally the dignity corresponding to Croker's in Tammany. The people's disgust with public officials serving in the name of the city, but in reality under the leadership of the above worthy, was shown in the result of yesterday's election. The Louisville district is safely Democratic by at least 8,000 votes, and we doubt if even Mr. Evans, the Republican Congressman-elect, would dispute this. In his interviews published in to-day's papers he attributes his election to Democratic votes, and thanks his Democratic friends for the confidence exhibited in him.

It is not far to find the cause of the overwhelming reversal that changed this Democratic majority into a majority of 4,596 votes for the Republican candidate. The Democratic primary held in this city on September 18 was conducted with the grossest irregularities, and nominations were made by the most flagrant and shameless corruption, fraud, and violence. The Republican nominations were made without excitement or bitterness, and all the nominees were clean men. The nominees, for Congress, Evans; for Judge of Court of Appeals, St. John Boyle; and County Judge, Chas. G. Ritchie, are men of high ability. A short campaign followed, ending yesterday. Louisville has about 8,000 registered negro voters, all of whom were of course expected to vote the Republican ticket. The Democratic campaign managers, with methods worthy of Tammany, and with the assistance of a servile county judge and the ever-ready police tools,

undertook to "purge" the registration of alleged frauds. More than 2,000 negroes were summoned to appear before the august tribunal above named to vindicate their right of citizenship. Of course, many could not answer without losing their day's work, and few were ever actually served with process. The election day came before the work was finished, but out of 435 whose names were marked doubtful or entirely stricken off, only 13 had been actually served with notice. The manifest purpose of this proceeding (and indeed such was the open boast) was to prevent a full negro vote being polled at the election.

This was intended to be, and was, accomplished in this manner: This drum-head court, practically without hearing, marked as doubtful voters a large number of registered negroes. The negroes marked doubtful were challenged upon entering the voting-booths. The voting was delayed to try the right of each of such negroes offering to vote; and as all the negroes lived principally in some half-a-dozen precincts, it was thereby hoped that the result would be, as it actually was, to prevent at least one-half of them from voting on account of the delay occasioned by this ruse. Ridiculous and disgraceful police interference added to the confusion and delay. But the negro's right to vote was vindicated by respectable white Democrats, who, while still faithful to Democratic principles, would not consent to stand idly by and see such an outrage perpetrated. The result was that the vote of the respectable element of the city was heavier than ever before, and was cast principally for the Republican nominees.

Another outrage that contributed largely to the rebellion was the fact that on the eve of the election the county judge removed without notice or excuse a large number of Republican inspectors, judges, and clerks of election, and gave their offices to others presumably more servile to the Democratic interests. The storm engendered by these various outrages became irresistible, and swept the Democrats of this district into the maelstrom of defeat. Of course, other causes, such as hard times and business dissatisfaction, caused some changes, but not enough to have lost the election.

The exact extent of the influence of the A. P. A. is difficult to measure. Pflanz, the Democratic nominee for sheriff, and the only one on that whole ticket saved from the wreck, is a Catholic. His vote was 15,017; that of his Republican opponent, also a Catholic was 11,460; while the independent candidate endorsed by the A. P. A. received over 8,000 votes. His vote does not seem to me to be a fair test. A juster estimate of the strength of this organization would be to see how far McDermott, the Catholic Democratic candidate, ran behind Evans, the Republican nominee and a Protestant, in comparison with the rest of the ticket. Evans, on an average, ran less than 2,500 votes ahead of his own ticket; and as the dissatisfaction of the Democrats on all scores probably resulted in their voting a straight Republican ticket, this 2,500-excess of Evans over his companion Republicans would seem to indicate something of the real strength of the A. P. A. organization. McDermott received 1,000 votes less than the Democratic Sheriff Pflanz, who is also a Catholic. These votes he could not have lost through A. P. A. sentiments. We might, therefore, properly reduce our figure of 2,500, but let it stand. It is so easy to exaggerate the strength of secret organizations that it is gratifying to get at something tangible which shows the A. P. A. to be so weak as to have cast only 2,500 votes

in an election where 35,000 out of our 40,000 registered votes are cast. A DEMOCRAT.

LOUISVILLE, November 7, 1894.

THE REBUKE IN MISSOURI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As an object-lesson, let me call your attention to the election of Seth Cobb as Democratic Congressman from Missouri, amid the phenomenal wreck the party has suffered here. He is the only Democrat elected by an increased majority, and was the only Democrat from Missouri in the last House of Representatives who voted for the unconditional repeal of the Sherman act, and who was the consistent supporter of President Cleveland's policy. In many of the county Democratic conventions in this State it was the custom this summer to "endorse our Senators and Representatives in Congress *except Cobb*."

Our splendid Democratic majority in this State has disappeared and has been replaced by a Republican majority. Our delegation in the last Congress, which was entirely Democratic with one exception, and our delegation in the preceding Congress, which was unanimously Democratic, are now exchanged for a delegation at least two-thirds Republican. Had all of our Congressmen followed Mr. Cobb's example, may we not logically reason they also would have been returned with increased majorities instead of meeting, as most of them have done, such contemptuous rejection by the people?

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now: "Silver Dick" Bland is defeated. The Democracy, I believe, will be stronger and better at the next election here for the lesson just taught it.—Yours,

A CLEVELAND DEMOCRAT.

ST. LOUIS, November 8, 1894.

WHAT HILL STOOD FOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a regular reader of the *Nation* for a number of years, and in that time, and prior to the political contest which ended yesterday, had learned to respect both its judgment and its principles. I have been unable to reconcile its past course with its conduct during that contest. Will you kindly explain, for the benefit of myself and many other readers, in what way you advanced the cause of tariff reform by aiding in the defeat of the Democratic party and Democratic Congressmen in the State of New York and elsewhere?—for the fact that the party would probably be defeated in New York, it seems to be conceded, affected the results in other States. That Hill represented the principle of tariff reform and Morton that of tariff "reform," although standing for State office, has not, I believe, been questioned. Nor can it be denied that Morton represented Platt and the Republican machine in New York, as Hill did the Democratic machine. To a looker-on, it appears that in running from the devil you have thrown yourself into the deep sea, and at the same time aided in dealing the cause of tariff reform a most dangerous and crippling if not fatal wound. It would seem that you have displayed most indifferent judgment, or knowingly thrown over the cause of tariff reform to gratify a dislike for the person of a candidate, when there was no choice, practically, between the machine affiliations and influences surrounding him and his opponent.

Kindly point out where my conclusions are wrong.—Respectfully yours,

SAMUEL J. GRAHAM.

PITTSBURGH, November 7, 1894.

[You do not seem to have read the account given of Hill and his adherents by the Tariff-Reform Democrats in 1893. Here is some of it:

"In 1892 they very nearly led the party to disaster in the national election.

"In 1893 they have actually brought it to defeat in this State.

"In 1892, by fraudulent caucuses and dishonest political methods, they undertook to mislead the Democratic National Convention as to the real choice of the Democrats of this State.

"In 1893 control of the State Convention was again secured by unfair and illegal use of the party machinery, and a ticket was presented to the people containing, as its most prominent candidate, one already discredited with the people, and for whose nomination no better reason was offered than that it was necessary in order to 'vindicate' certain party leaders. No time was given for organized opposition within the party to this most improper selection, and the party was forced before the people with the candidates selected at the unrepresentative State Convention.

"Under such circumstances our defeat should surprise no one.

"But it is not alone by their despotic use of self-chosen and self-perpetuating party committees to control caucuses and conventions, in defiance and contempt of the wishes of the majority, that these unfaithful leaders have brought scandal upon the party.

"They have prostituted the name of Democracy to the vilest ends.

"Municipalities have been looted and have been denied the right of self government.

"Offices have been bestowed upon unworthy persons as rewards for disreputable political services and as tributes to personal friendship.

"The laws of the State have been violated, the mandates of its courts defied, and common decency outraged. All these crimes have been committed, in the name of Democracy; by men whose sole claim to power and consideration is that they proclaim themselves to be Democrats."

Nor do you seem to be familiar with the great rule of political morals which forbids you to put, or assist in putting, liars, cheats, and thieves in high places in order to improve a system of taxation.—ED. NATION.]

ANTICS OF HABEAS CORPUS IN TEXAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You say in your issue of October 25 last that "for the first time, unless we are greatly mistaken, since the writ of habeas corpus was introduced into Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, a judge last week in this city [Judge Lacombe] found that a man brought before him under it [Mr. Morton's coachman] was unlawfully deprived of his liberty, and yet remanded him to the custody of his captor." I write to say that in these later days justice is often administered in a way that the public little wots of, and that the miscarriage of justice noted by you is not, the first time that a judge has found that a person brought before him by the writ of habeas corpus was illegally deprived of his liberty, and yet remanded him to the custody of his captor.

The instance of a miscarriage of justice for which I claim precedence over the case noted by the *Nation* occurred in the year 1892, and in the Circuit Court of the United States for the Eastern District of Texas at Galveston, Judge David E. Bryant presiding. The case is as follows: One Arthur O. Upham was indicted and convicted in a State court, and a

fine of \$450 was assessed against him. The judgment of the court is that the State have and recover of the defendant the amount of the fine and costs, and that he be committed to the county jail until the fine and costs are paid. The convict in such cases is by the statute to be credited on the fine at the rate of three dollars per day. The convict was committed to the county jail in default of payment of the fine and costs—the costs being the sum of \$206.

A general statute authorizes the County Commissioners of each county to establish a county farm for the purpose of utilizing the labor of convicts who have been adjudged to pay a pecuniary fine and are unable to do so. This statute authorizes the County Commissioners to confine such county convicts upon the county farm, and to compel them to labor there not less than eight hours per day, and to credit them on the fine at 50 cents a day for each day they labor. Under this statute A. O. Upham was taken from the county jail and was committed to the county farm, whereupon he sued out a writ of habeas corpus returnable before the Circuit Court of the United States for the Eastern District of Texas at Galveston.

The ground of the application for the writ, which was granted, was that the statute by authority of which the relator was committed to the county farm is not due process of law within the meaning of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, and that it is not due process of law in this, that it authorizes the confinement of the relator in a place not designated by the judgment of the court, and imposes a punishment not assessed by the verdict of a jury, and authorizes a longer period of confinement than that prescribed by the law under which the judgment was rendered; and that, according to the due course of the law of the land, no punishment can be meted out to a convict other than that adjudged against him by the sentence of a court, nor can he be confined in any place other than the place to which he has been committed by the judgment of a court, since the term "due process of law" imports that a person's life, liberty, or property can be taken only in the due administration of the law by the judicial tribunals of the country.

The writ was served upon the superintendent of the county farm as the custodian of the prisoner, and, upon the hearing, the judge presiding announced from the bench that the statute under which the relator was committed to the county farm was unconstitutional, and found that the prisoner had been taken from the custody of the sheriff and was illegally restrained of his liberty by the respondent; and yet Judge Bryant remanded the prisoner to be put to labor on the county farm under a statute which he knew to be and had pronounced to be unconstitutional.

Nor is this all of this unprecedented proceeding. The relator, by his counsel, gave notice of appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States, and asked for an order that, pending his appeal, the prisoner be enlarged upon his recognizance under Rule 34 of the Supreme Court. This rule found no more favor with Judge Bryant than did the fourteenth amendment; and in disregard of this rule he refused to take the recognizance of the relator, which was offered, and remanded the prisoner back to the county farm, thus denying him the common justice embodied in the rule that, pending his appeal, a prisoner should not be deprived of his liberty and punished.

It may well be asked, Could lawlessness in a court of justice further go? That mob law or

lynch law often asserts itself where the courts have failed or refused to enforce the law of the land has come to be, it must be admitted, a melancholy truth. We will now see where mob law takes this memorable case in hand and turns the prisoner Upham loose, *nemine contradicente*.

Upon the argument of this case it began to dawn upon the County Commissioners of Galveston County that possibly the legal existence of the county farm might be in jeopardy. They resolved that the prisoner's appeal to the Supreme Court must be cut off; a decision of that august and enlightened tribunal must not be had. The prisoner by this time had grown to be an elephant on the farm, and it came to be feared that said elephant might do some damage to the farm and it might become too expensive to keep him any longer, and the County Commissioners came to the conclusion that they ought to get rid of him as soon as possible. The cry arose, "Turn him loose." The prisoner having been committed to the county farm by authority of a statute, and having been sent back there by the judgment of a federal court, there was of course no legal way of turning the prisoner loose except by the writ of *habeas corpus* or the executive pardon. Still the cry continued: "Turn the prisoner loose," "Cut off his appeal," "Save the farm."

It is needless to say that when a clamor of this sort arises, the means of carrying out the purpose becomes a matter of small consequence. Without more ado, and without the sanction of any law, the County Commissioners arose in their fright and incontinently turned the prisoner loose. L. E. TREZEVANT.

GALVESTON, TEXAS, November 5, 1894.

FARMING IN MARYLAND ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "J. M. V." rightly points out the infection of the pastures with garlic as the great impediment to dairying in Maryland. This is one most urgent reason why the State should have a thoroughly equipped experiment station. Some efficient means for eradicating the garlic weed from the land, or the device of a method for treating the milk so as to eliminate the obnoxious flavor, would be worth more to Maryland than it would cost to establish and run ten experimental stations. And it is by no means out of the question to solve this problem. Modern dairy science distinctly indicates the way to make good butter of garlic-infected milk; and all that is needed to accomplish that result is knowledge, perseverance, and means to carry out the experiments to a successful end.

J. D. FREDERIKSEN.

LITTLE FALLS, N. Y., November 9, 1894.

THE AMERICAN WORD BAYOU.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some English words, derived from the languages of the American Indians, that were once erroneously referred to kin beyond the sea—"barbecue," "canoe," and "hammock" (a swinging bed) are fair examples—have been, one by one, released from outlandish servitude, and are now restored to their ancestral rights. A few still linger in the limbo of fanciful etymology.

Our latest and best authorities, namely, the 'New English Dictionary,' the 'Century Dictionary,' and the 'International Dictionary,' continue to say, with more or less positiveness,

that the American word "bayou" is a corruption of the French *boyau*, 'a gut.' This explanation is *prima facie* improbable, because, first, if we may trust the vigilant scrutiny of M. Littré, the word *boyau* was never used by the French at home in the sense of a channel of water; and, secondly, there is no historical proof that the early French settlers on the Mississippi River and the Gulf coast ever used the word in this sense or changed it into "bayou."

The first quotation in the N. E. D. illustrating the use of the word "bayou" is taken from Cobbett's book entitled 'A Year's Residence in the United States of America' (London, 1822, p. 273), and reads as follows: "Johnson's Ferry, a place where a Bayou (Boyau) of the Wabash is crossed. This Bayou is a run out of the main river, round a flat portion of land." These words of Cobbett furnish, possibly, the starting-point of the current false etymology. If it should prove to be true that good Americans have trustfully accepted as sound etymology the flighty conjecture of that ferocious hater of all good things American, William Cobbett, the fact would serve as another lively illustration of the irony of fate.

If guesswork were allowable at all, some good Americans would, perhaps, prefer the rash etymologizing of the American geographer William Darby, who, in his 'Geographical Description of Louisiana' (2d ed., New York, 1817, p. 353), asserts without qualification that the word "bayou" is "originally Spanish, and signifies the diminutive of bay" (*bahia* or *baya*). This is a trifle less ridiculous than the received explanation, because the Spanish *bahia* does, at all events, connote a body of water.

But the true source of the word "bayou" is not very far to seek. Among the first tribes of Indians that Le Moyne d'Iberville met in 1699, after he reached the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico near the mouths of the Mississippi, were the Bayougoula. This name Bayougoula runs with other Choctaw names still existent on the Gulf coast, namely Pascagoula, properly *Pask-okla*, 'the bread people'; Pensacola, properly *Pansh-okla*, 'the hairy people'; Apalachicola, properly *Apelach-okla*, 'the helping people'; 'the allies,' and with some that have now passed out. It may be of interest to note the fact, in passing, that, in each of the names above enumerated, the glide from *k* to *l* in the Choctaw word *okla*, 'people,' has been developed by the white people into a full vowel-sound, which has now become the soul of the word.

The Bayougoula—Le Page du Pratz writes the name in full, "les Bayouc-ogoulas"—were "the people of the bayouc" or "bayou." The following extracts from the narratives of some of the early settlers and travellers in Louisiana explain sufficiently what a *bayouc* was, and show, besides, that the word is of Indian and not of French origin:

"A cinq lieues plus loin en tournant tous-jours à la gauche sur le lac [Pontchartrain] on trouve une eau dormante, que les Sauvages appellent *Bayouque*. C'est un esgout des eaux qui tombent des terres hautes." (*Relation de Jean Pénicaut in Pierre Margry's Découvertes et Etablissements des Français dans l'Ouest et dans le sud de l'Amérique Septentrionale, cinquième partie*. Paris, 1887, p. 385.) Pénicaut was a ship-carpenter who came over with D'Iberville in 1699, and remained in Louisiana twenty-two years.

"Au Midi de ce Lac [Pontchartrain] est un grand *Bayouc*, que l'on nomme le Bayouc S. Jean. *Bayouc* est un grand ruisseau d'eau morte, où on ne voit que très-peu, ou même presque point de courant." (*Histoire de la Louisiane par M. Le Page du Pratz*. Paris, 1758, tome premier, p. 45.)

"A league beyond it [New Orleans] towards the northeast, there is a small river called *le Bayouc de Saint Jean*, or the Creek of Saint John, *Bayouc* in the Indian language signifying a rivulet, which, at the end of two leagues, discharges itself into the lake Pontchartrain." (*Journal of a Voyage to North America in a Series of Letters to the Duchess of Lesdiguières, translated from the French of P. de Charlevoix*. London, 1761. Vol. ii., p. 289.)

W. S. WYMAN.

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA, November 3, 1894.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. will publish this week, besides the Letters of Emily Dickinson, 'A Child of the Age,' by the late Francis Adams; 'The Power of the Will; or Success,' by H. Risbrough Sharman; a second series of 'The Thought of God in Hymns and Poems,' by F. L. Hosmer and W. C. Gannett; and 'Father Goose's Melodies,' by Adelaide F. Samuels.

Copeland & Day have nearly ready 'The Wooing of Martha Pitkin,' by Charles Knowles Bolton; the 'Love Sonnets' of Wilfrid S. Blunt; and a volume of poems by Prof. John B. Tabb.

D. Appleton & Co.'s additional announcements include Maspero's 'Dawn of Civilization,' edited by Prof. Sayce and translated by M. L. McClure; Nordau's 'Degeneracy'; 'The Life and Correspondence of William Buckland, D.D., Dean of Westminster, by his daughter, Mrs. Gordon'; 'The Land of the Sun,' by Christian Reid; 'General Hancock,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker; 'The Education of the Greek People, and its Influence on Civilization,' by Thomas Davidson; 'The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public-School System,' by George D. Martin; and 'The Criminology Series,' edited by Douglas Morrison, beginning with Lombroso's 'Criminal Woman.'

A series of handbooks on the History of Religions, edited by Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., of the University of Pennsylvania, is to be issued by Ginn & Co. 'The Religions of India,' by Prof. E. W. Hopkins of Bryn Mawr, will lead off.

F. Tennyson Neely, Chicago, has in preparation a 'David Swing Memorial Volume,' compiled by his daughter, Mrs. Starring. It will consist mainly of the preacher's corrected sermons, and will be sold only by subscription.

B. Westermann & Co. will publish immediately the fourth part, "Morphology," of the translation of Karl Brugmann's 'Elements of a Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages.' The index will form the fifth and concluding volume.

The third part of Prof. J. B. Thayer's 'Cases on Constitutional Law' has just been published by Charles W. Sever, Cambridge, Mass., and the fourth and last is promised by February 1. At the close of the work will be found the only copy yet in print of the recent important Massachusetts Supreme Court decision on the collateral inheritance tax.

The ninth of the Filson Club Publications (Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.) treats of the Political Club of Danville, Ky., and is from the pen of Thomas Speed, whose ancestors were members of the club during its short life (1786-'90). This publication deservedly rescues a notable organization from complete obscurity. An account of its organization and proceedings is preceded by an interesting retrospect of the early settlement and condition of Kentucky. The club discussed the new Constitution of the United States, hot from the press, and would have expunged the clause

prohibiting Congress from summarily abolishing the slave-trade. (One member emancipated his slaves at his death in 1837.) The club also voted against the office of Vice-President. (One member, Baker Ewing, was ancestor of our actual Vice-President Stevenson.) On another occasion it was decided not to encourage intermarriage with Indians. The Filson Club announces for No. 10 'The Life and Writings of Constantine Samuel Rafinesque,' by Richard Ellsworth Call. A reprint of Rafinesque's 'Fishes of the River Ohio,' edited by Dr. Call, will be issued by J. P. Morton & Co. in February next.

A book eleven inches broad in the back might well daunt the reviewer, and such is the English 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' for 1894 (London: Whitaker; New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). It is, however, the analogue of our 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' or, in other words, a congeries of booksellers' catalogues, alphabetically arranged, but with the addition of an index. In five years this book which is, in one sense, no book, has added an inch to its breadth, 26 to its 130 publishers, 111 pages to its index, and nearly 20,000 to its 68,000 index references. These figures are eloquent enough, and seem to cry out for a division of this excessive bulk. But the undertakers say no: a single volume is fundamental to the idea of such a trade tool. A temporary compromise might be found in the adoption of an octavo page, but this would be more costly to the individual houses than the extra binding for a second volume.

Perfunctory indeed is Mr. Austin Dobson's "introduction" to 'Old English Songs from Various Sources' (Macmillan), which owes its compilation to the illustrator, Mr. Hugh Thomson. And the designs themselves might be called perfunctory, for not a few are fairly wrung out of the couplets or quatrains which serve as a pretext for them. Each illustration has a page to itself, and faces the verse it belongs to; and, thus chopped up, the songs themselves lose in interest. Mr. Thomson affers comparison at various points with Abbey and with Caldecott, but fails to reach their level, while sometimes falling below his own. The book is prettily bound in green and gold.

Mr. Thomson appears to better advantage in another comely volume, with a gorgeous peacock cover, from the same house, 'Pride and Prejudice.' For this reprint Mr. George Saintsbury has been called in to furnish some prefatory remarks, which consist in a contention for this novel as the best of Miss Austen's, and a running commentary on the characters. It is a serious disquisition, and because of its anticipations it ought, of course, to be read last, not first.

A companionable little edition of 'The Christian Year' bears Keble's portrait and Macmillan's imprint on the title-page. It is meant not for show but for popular acceptance, and has the external neatness of the Golden Treasury Series which it extends.

The Scribners continue their handsome re-issue, of English manufacture, of Henry Kingsley's novels with 'Austin Elliott' in one volume and 'The Recollections of Geoffrey Hamlyn' in two. Good taste and judgment have presided over this enterprise.

Messrs. Putnam send us two volumes of their "Ariel Shakspeare," of which we lately noticed the completion, as examples of the cheapest style (out of four). They are bound in garnet cloth, and to our thinking they are quite as presentable as the leather-bound of the next higher grade.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have brought out in

good shape, with an excellent portrait of the author, Sir Edwin Arnold's 'Light of Asia,' fit for hand and pocket or for the shelf.

Prof. Hales is editing for Macmillan & Co. a series of students' handbooks covering the most important periods of English literature. The ages of Chaucer and Shakspeare are to be undertaken by the general editor, that of Dryden by Mr. Garnett, and others by less well-known but capable scholars. The first of the series to appear is the 'Age of Pope,' a compact and neatly printed little volume of two hundred and fifty pages, by Mr. John Dennis. The style is clear, the treatment full, accurate, and sensible, the matter always interesting, though rarely in any way original. Two defects alone arrest the attention. Like most English writers on the same or similar subjects, the author is inclined to till his plot of soil after a somewhat conventional fashion. The age of Pope is to him an isolated unit, incapable of further subdivision and unrelated to its predecessors, its contemporaries, or its successors. He scarcely takes account, for instance, of the growing signs of romanticism in the very stronghold of English classicism, nor gives himself the trouble to outline the main principles of that general period of European classicism to which the age of Pope is but a corollary. Nor, again, does he give the student more than the slightest bibliographical information. A handbook of this sort can scarcely be expected to contain everything; but it should help the reader to a fairly complete conception of what the works are to which he should turn to supplement his knowledge.

Prof. Hempl of the University of Michigan has prepared a thirty-page manual, 'Chaucer's Pronunciation and the Spelling of the Ellesmere MS.' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), which will be of great assistance to teachers and students, and, indeed, to everybody who is not content to read Chaucer in a slovenly way. The subject is treated with admirable clearness and method. Trifling distinctions of sound are properly subordinated, and the main features of Chaucer's vowel and consonant system are well brought out. Prof. Hempl's well-known skill as a phonetician is a sufficient guaranty of the accuracy of the book.

Unhappy must be the candidates for "the Leaving Certificate, the University Local, and other Public Examinations" for whom Mr. J. Logie Robertson of Edinburgh Ladies' College prepared his 'History of English Literature' (Harpers). It is a genuine specimen of a race of text-books, now happily fast disappearing, in which history means a multitude of dates, and literature a multitude of names. Pope and Burns fall into the same period, and Mr. Saintsbury has twice as much space allotted to him as D. G. Rossetti. Of the latter the author merely relates (p. 332) that, "born in London, son of a Professor of Italian in King's College, [he] was a painter and poet of the pre-Raphaelite school." Apparently no attempt has been made to stimulate the pupil's love for literature, to give him important and necessary ideas in regard to the rise and general characteristics of the chief periods of our literature, or to train his mind by presenting to him a thoroughly organized and scientific but simple treatment of the subject. Worse yet, Mr. Robertson's style is dull and awkward and his literary vision limited.

Of an entirely different character is Mr. Pancoast's 'Introduction to English Literature' (Henry Holt & Co.), an adaptation for general use in high schools and academies of the same author's 'Representative English Literature,' which we noticed with approval

on its appearance two years ago. In its earlier form it undertook to furnish the student with typical selections from various authors as well as with the matter necessary in a text-book on the history of our literature. The result was a somewhat bulky volume, likely to be of service particularly in schools without libraries. The present edition omits the extracts and expands the text, rendering the book more compact and increasing greatly its value. At times the treatment of particular men or books is evidently superficial, noticeably so in the case of Steele, whom the author declines to view through other eyes than those of Thackeray. It would be foolish, however, to expect faultless excellence in a work of this sort. It is enough that it treats the history of English literature as closely connected with general history, that the style is interesting, the conception broad and clear, the biographical details nicely subordinated to matters more important, and that, as we said of the book in its earlier form, not even the dullest pupil can study it without feeling the historical and logical continuity of English literature.

The late J. A. Symonds's 'Giovanni Boccaccio as Man and Author' (Charles Scribner's Sons), although scarcely more than an essay in book form, is evidently designed as a work of much the same sort as the same author's 'Introduction to the Study of Dante,' although it is much less elaborate and ambitious. In contents and form it is clearly an expansion of his well-known chapter on Boccaccio in the 'Renaissance in Italy,' with which, indeed, it has a number of pages in common. Like most of Mr. Symonds's historical work, especially that relating to the earlier centuries of Italian literature, this essay is written with accuracy in all essential matters, and with that unusual breadth of view, simplicity of outline, and clearness of style which have made the 'Renaissance in Italy' far more popular in England and America than, in the opinion of many experts, the author's rank as a scholar or an investigator deserved. It is probably due to Mr. Symonds's sudden death that the present volume is unprovided with what makes a book of this kind most useful, a good bibliography, or at least references to other works with the help of which the reader, fresh from the stimulus of this, will be glad to continue his study of the author under review.

'The American Army in the War of Secession' is the title of the translation of the report made to the French Government by Gen. de Chanal in 1865 (Leavenworth, Kansas: George A. Spooner). It has been very well translated by Lieut. M. J. O'Brien, Fifth U. S. Infantry, and is a well-digested and clear analysis of the organization of the army during the war of the Rebellion. Its special interest lies in the frank comparison of our army with the French and other European organizations, and the very high appreciation of the qualities which gave it efficiency. It affords the best possible evidence that the French expert found our army fully equal in practical usefulness and in actual warfare to any other, while in some respects he places its organization, its methods, and its value exceptionally high. As a comparative study the book will be a most useful one, and it is certainly a very encouraging one to the American soldier.

'Hoofs, Claws, and Antlers of the Rocky Mountains, by the Camera,' is the title of a striking series of photographic reproductions from life of large wild animals, with an introduction by Theodore Roosevelt, published by Frank S. Thayer at Denver, Col. Most of the photographs were taken by Mr. and Mrs. A. G.

Walliban. The difficulty of enlarging the views from the original negatives, and reproducing them by the half-tone process, has been measurably overcome, with the result of giving us some of the most lifelike pictures we have ever seen. Among the subjects treated are the black-tail or mule deer, the wapiti or elk, the antelope, buffalo, mountain sheep, mountain goat, wolf, bear, cougar, and beaver. One has to study such pictures as these to realize how far from nature are the conventional likenesses of animals in ordinary works on zoology. It will be as astonishing to most persons as were the results of the Muybridge process of instantaneous photographs of moving objects, which taught us that few persons know how even a horse uses his legs. Judging by the pictures now before us, we are more inclined than we were before to judge that Wolf of England has of all artists drawn animals most true to nature. To our eye, the plate of the buffalo cow and calf is the finest portrait in the book; but they are all extremely good, and the scenes in which the animals themselves are hardly more than specks on a broad expanse of prairie, give us decidedly novel as well as pleasurable sensations.

The Napiers and Nelson give a strong military and naval flavor to the fortieth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), to say nothing of minor admirals like Myngs and soldiers like the General Neill who lashed the Sepoys into licking up the bloodstains of Cawnpore, and then hung them. Nelson's story is told in nineteen pages, and is second in extent only to Newton's. The enormous Nelsonian "literature" is pronounced almost wholly untrustworthy. Newton, in his famous controversy with Leibnitz, is acquitted of all borrowing. A famous line of engineers, the Mynes, is commemorated here, along with James Nasmyth, inventor of the steam-hammer, and also of that "flexible shaft, consisting of a close-coiled spiral wire, for driving small drills," which has been several times reinvented, and "is now in general use by dentists as a supposed American contrivance." The work is carried on in this volume to Nicholls.

A man of no literary pretensions, yet the writer of a very great book—a second-rate artist who thought himself a prodigious master—such was Benvenuto Cellini. His name is immortal, and he deserves, if ever a man did, to be ranked among "Artistes Célèbres"; and yet as M. Molinier shows once more in his monograph in that series (Paris: Librairie de l'Art), what remains of his authentic work does not at all justify his colossal reputation. "His works in sculpture," says M. Molinier, "are figures fit for the decoration of a salt-cellar, and—his salt-cellar is too much a work of sculpture." This epigrammatic judgment is eminently just, and places Cellini in his true rank. It is as the writer of his bragging and inimitable autobiography that the Florentine goldsmith and swashbuckler will always be known among the most picturesque figures of the literature of the world; and it is the vivid extracts from this autobiography that give the present work its savor.

Admirers of Rembrandt (which to-day is as much as to say all the world) will be interested in the publication by the Berlin (and New York) Photographic Company of a portfolio of seventeen photogravures from the pictures of the master in the gallery at Cassel. This museum is a little out of the beaten track of the tourist, but its collection of Rembrandt's works is known by students and critics to be one of the most important and interesting in

existence, and it has never before been so adequately reproduced. Some of the plates are a little violent in light and shade, and lack the Rembrandtesque mellowness of tone; but they will prove a most welcome addition to the means of comparative study of the methods of the sombre poet of Amsterdam.

We have received from Wm. Heinemann, London, a 'Catalogue of the Accademia delle Belle Arti at Venice,' compiled by E. M. Keary, who describes the pictures themselves and sketches the lives of the painters. At the end are grouped good process cuts of twenty canvases by Bellini, Carpaccio, Mantegna, Tintoretto, Veronese, Titian, and other masters. This is the first English catalogue ever attempted for the Academy, and the publisher has in preparation a Catalogue of the Museo del Prado at Madrid, where the English-speaking visitor is even worse off than in Venice. The arrangement and accessories of the Keary Catalogue leave no hing to be desired.

Since September 30 M. Paul Verlaine has been publishing his "confessions" in the unspeakable *Fin de Siècle*. He had given before some pages of his life in his little book 'Mes Prisons.' So far, his later chapters are made up of poetic remembrances of childhood and early youth, which stand out, delicate as violets, in the midst of very odd surroundings.

There is a rapidly growing sentiment in favor of popular libraries in Germany, and efforts are making to secure their widespread establishment. A plan is on foot for a German periodical index on the plan of 'Poole.' It is in contemplation also to publish a German edition of W. I. Fletcher's 'Public Libraries in America,' lately brought out by Roberts Bros. in their "Columbian Knowledge Series."

—It is pleasant to find, in the *Atlantic* of this month, Dr. Birkbeck Hill, whose name is more familiar on scholarly bookshelves than at the end of magazine articles, discoursing on the characteristic theme of "Boswell's Proof-Sheets," and genially explaining to his American audience why the devout Johnsonian will, like himself, "henceforth have to cross the Atlantic and end his pilgrimage on the pleasant shores of Lake Erie." The leisurely pace and admiring vein of the comment on the sheets in question, show the spirit of Boswell himself animating the pen of an indefatigable editor and commentator, and help to revive the conviction, almost extinguished by constant contradiction, that time is long. At the opposite pole of literary handling, the brief monograph on the Emperor Hadrian's briefest of odes achieves its success by scrupulous simplification of its critical method; the end intended—a fresh translation of the strange lyric—being kept well in sight from first paragraph to last. Some studies in Japanese character and manners, by Lafcadio Hearn, are excessively easy to read, owing to their lightness of touch and versatility of form. They will probably prove equally easy to forget, owing to their general vagueness and lack of solidity of substance. On the side of good citizenship, a vigorous writer, under the oracular title of "Tammany Points the Way," attempts to reform the point of view of the reformers, or at least of those reformers who overlook some primal human instincts, and put their faith in cunningly devised systems of city government, in purified primaries, in the education of the masses, or even in the political value of the self-interest of those who are already "the educated." His case in favor of reliance upon the force of personal leadership, and of enthusiasm for a common

cause, is worthy the consideration of the thoughtful, though the logic of events since the printing of the paper may call for a reconsideration of some of its premises. The retrospective side of public affairs is treated with an able grasp by Mr. Bancroft, who writes of Seward's political attitude in 1860-1861. Of the leading article of the number, a story by Mary Hallock Foote, the proof will be in the finishing next month.

—There is less matter in *Harper's* that tempts to prolixity of comment. Apart from "A Painter's Impressions of Rajpootana," and Poultney Bigelow's less laboriously descriptive account of "The Cossack as Cowboy, Soldier, and Citizen"—both, it is needless to say, well and amply illustrated—the number, where it is not fiction or verse (poetry by stretch of courtesy), is given up to a persistent adherence to homebred themes. Extremes of such themes as wide as from Mr. Janvier's "Sea-Robbers of New York" to "The Religion of the Sioux" meet between the covers, but the impression of homogeneity nevertheless remains. Of the fiction perhaps the less said the better, although this remark is not applicable to the conclusion of Mr. Warner's "Golden House," of which there will be more in another place.

—Sameness of another sort—a uniform thinness of quality—is the pervading quality of *Scribner's*, with the proverbial exception to the rule. "Election Night in a Newspaper Office" jumps well with the moment, and the really admirable illustrations, from photographs, to "English Railroad Methods," are worthy of all praise. But when the former has been characterized as brisk and timely, the last word has been said in its favor, and the latter need a letterpress on a par with themselves. "The American Girls' Art Club in Paris" may be accepted as the necessary recognition, in one form or another, of the woman student's present importance, and "True Pictures among the Poor" may stand to the complaisant reader for a contribution to another subject that an editor cannot now afford to overlook. But genuine satisfaction with the number must be derived from its wolf story, than which, in its kind, nothing better could be desired. The destroyer and biographer of the "King of Currumpaw" has used an artist's self-restraint in keeping himself in the background. Life in a corner of northern New Mexico becomes incidentally vivid in his narrative, and it is his final triumph as a story-teller that, when superior human cunning has at last prevailed, the entrapped hero is still permitted to keep the reader's admiration and interest on his side.

—A better article on a sadder theme than Mr. Riis has written in the *Century*, the reader of current literature need not expect often to meet with. "The Making of Thieves in New York" is its pregnant title—a title which would still hold good if it should be amplified and altered for the worse to "an exposure of the failure on a colossal scale of one of our vaunted democratic institutions," inasmuch as it is no other than a failure in the working of the public-school system that is responsible for the wholesale turning out of youthful criminals. What school boards leave undone in this direction the government of reformatories does not fail to do. Mr. Riis fortunately does not expose abuses without showing ways of correcting them. The only missing link is between men and means. The cuts which accompany his article are of the grimly

expository kind, as far removed as possible from the pretty presentment of the magazine picture. To turn to a brighter side, there is still another glimpse here of the family group of the Hawthornes, elder and juvenile, portrayed chiefly by the rainbow-hued pen of Mrs. Hawthorne, with Lenox in the background. The editing of this fresh batch of letters is by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop, and their welcome is assured in advance. An M.P.'s lively and picturesque recollections of the way the Chinese work and live in the city of Canton finds the curiosity of the reading world at its flood, while the account of "Washington in Lincoln's Time" supplies the proper modicum of American historical study to an agreeably varied number, in which the curtain finally falls upon Mrs. Burton Harrison's "Bachelor Maid." Prof. William M. Sloane's "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte" begins its course, on the contrary; but its prelude does not provoke one to prophesy of great things or otherwise.

—An interesting movement toward uniformity in at least one branch of preparatory study has probably proved entirely successful. A year ago the association of the colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland appointed a joint committee of college professors and preparatory-school teachers to present a scheme of uniform requirements in English for admission to colleges in the Middle States and Maryland. This committee was fortunately able to act in unison with a similar committee appointed by the corresponding association in New England, and with a third committee from the New England Commission of Colleges. Their joint recommendations have within the last few weeks been adopted by both the New England bodies, and are soon, with every prospect of approval, to be brought before the association in the Middle States. Meanwhile a similar movement in the Northern Central States, originating in the universities of Chicago, Michigan, and Wisconsin, has reached practically the same conclusions. The result, one of the first tangible fruits of the recommendations of the national committee, will in all probability be the adoption of substantially the same requirements in English for entrance to colleges throughout the greater part of the country, and will undoubtedly exert a strong unifying and stimulating influence on the teaching of English in all secondary schools. The suggested requirements throw greater stress on the study of English literature, and tend to place the entrance examinations in English on a par with those in Latin and Greek, to which from time immemorial they have in most institutions been subordinated.

—London has been steadily ranging itself into two camps for the great School-Board fight on November 22 over the religious question. The operation of the compulsory-education clauses, passed in 1876, is another subject on which opinion may hereafter be divided. Compulsion is already declared by some a dead-letter because (1) the School Board officers whose duty it is to beat up children who attend no school, or attend too irregularly to receive any benefit, are not responsible either to the teachers or to the school managers, but merely fill up forms which are sent to a body so far removed from the district and so busy as the London School Board. (2.) When cases of parents refusing to send their children to school are tried before the London magistrates, these almost invariably give a decision against

the School Board and in favor of recalcitrant parents. In a word, the magistrates seem to be opposed to a national system of education, and cast their vote in favor of the "liberty" of parents. (3.) But the gravest reason for the failure of compulsion is the inability of the Board to provide sufficient accommodation for the children. These numbered in 1893 close upon 575,000, and every year there is a notable increase in the population. In the same year there was a deficiency of school-places in the borough of Chelsea of 5,500; in Hackney, 8,800. In six London districts there was a total deficiency of 32,000 places. Since education was declared free in September, 1892, there has been an enormous increase throughout the kingdom of young children between three and five attending the schools. As no economy was effected by keeping these "youths" at home, some 40,000 or 50,000 found their way to the infants' department, and have doubtless contributed to the difficulties of Boards in providing places for the children. The classes are of enormous size. A member of the present Board found fifty-three classes in nine schools; the number of scholars ranged from 80 to 112, a single teacher undertaking each class. The expenditure of the London School Board is some £2,500,000 per annum.

—The National Gallery has within the few months of its new Directorship made some valuable additions to the Italian, Flemish, and English schools, the promptness in exhibiting which deserves all praise. The new Italian pictures of note are from the collections of Lord Northbrook and Lady Eastlake:

"The 'Agony in the Garden,' by Mantegna," writes a correspondent, "is perhaps the most important. At a first glance one is struck by a resemblance of the design to Giovanni Bellini's picture of this subject in the adjoining room; but when one comes to compare the two, one sees that it is the general character of the country, the treatment of the rocks especially, and the intensity of feeling in the figures, that suggest a resemblance, the arrangement of the subject differing entirely. It is, however, affirmed by some authorities on Italian art that Bellini painted this very picture from a design in Mantegna's sketch-book: The 'St. Jerome in his Study,' by Antonello da Messina, is a gem of the most minute and perfect execution, only a foot square in size. The Saint is seated at his desk reading in a little wooden room within a larger marble hall, with a colonnade on either side, wherein the lion wanders at ease, while peacocks are picking up grain in the foreground, and delightful peeps of distant country show through the columns. The paneling of the Saint's room is full of comfortable contrivances. There are shelves in which books and pots are stowed; his towel hangs on a nail, his hat, of the same red as his gown, is on a chair beside him; every detail is painted with extreme love and care, though all are fused in admirable general effect, showing that although Antonello was the first Italian painter who learned to paint in oil from the Flemish masters, none ever surpassed him. A Filippino Lippi from Lady Eastlake's collection is very lovely in design—a Madonna and infant Christ offering seeds from a pomegranate to the little St. John. The 'Portrait of a Gentleman' by Terborch is an excellent example of this master, and illustrates the best qualities of the Dutch school. The gentleman, in a black suit of various materials, stands against a background of gray wall with a red table at his side, and chair to match. The painting is solemn and dignified in its simplicity of color and the head is very full of character. Rembrandt's 'Christ before Pilate' is a brown monochrome study very forcible in light and shade. 'Tasting,' by Le Nain, is the only French addition, while in the English section we have 'Christ Washing Peter's Feet,' by Ford Madox Brown, a picture of immense vigor and originality in its color and in its design. A precursor of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, in this picture Madox Brown has introduced portraits of seve-

ral of that body as disciples, viz., D. G. Rossetti, William Rossetti, Holman Hunt, Deverell, F. G. Stephen, etc. The head of Christ is full of feeling, and compares well with the robust aquiline type of Peter, whose feet he is wiping. The copper bowl in the foreground gives the highest note of color, which is kept up throughout in great intensity. The realistic qualities of this work and its freshness of conception and sincerity are very striking, and they seem to combine modern aspirations with the earnest spirit of early Italian masters. 'Pegwell Bay,' by William Dyce, R.A., is well known to those who have taken any interest in the art movement in England in the earlier part of this century. It is a very carefully painted study of sands, rocks, and sea shore, with people in the costume of the time, crinoline and pork-pie hats, gathering mussels, but very gray and cold in its general aspect. Another picture of W. Dyce lately added is 'St. John leading the Virgin Mary from the Tomb.' It is not without tenderness of expression and a certain affinity with Italian masters in its simplicity of design and purity of color, but it is a weak composition, which does not show Dyce to have been as remarkable an artist as he really was. Another English artist now represented here is John Lewis, R.A., the painter of Eastern landscape. 'Edfou, Upper Egypt,' is the work which has found its way into the National Collection. It is characteristic enough of the artist's dry, hard manner of depicting Oriental scenes."

MONRO'S GREEK MUSIC.

The Modes of Ancient Greek Music. By D. B. Monro. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894. Pp. xvi, 144.

THERE are subjects in archaeology of which we know next to nothing; and although we may regret our ignorance in a general way, we do not greatly fret over it. There are others about which we know so much that we cannot bear to know so little. Greek music belongs to the latter class. It is a subject so well known to specialists that they are able to compose under the rules and in some of the scales peculiar to ancient music; and yet there are, in our knowledge of it, gaps and vexatious questions peculiarly distressing to those who do not share with Mr. Monro the pessimistic view that "possibly a large portion of what has passed into the domain of 'well authenticated' fact is complete misapprehension."

One of the most vexatious, and certainly the most vexed, questions in Greek music concerns the nature of the Greek modes. Were they analogous to what we call modes in modern music, or were they something quite different? In modern music we have but two modes, a major mode and a minor mode; which latter is by some regarded as two modes because its descending scale uses different notes from the ascending scale. If we start an upward octave scale at C, the major scale proceeds by seven steps to the next higher C, and each step is one tone higher than its predecessor, except the fourth and the eighth, which are only a semitone higher. If we start a minor ascending scale, the semi-tones will be the third and the eighth. Modern modes, then, differ in the position occupied by the semi-tones within the octave. From any note, black or white, on the piano scale, a scale may be run in either of these modes without changing the character of the mode, which is therefore seen to have nothing to do with pitch.

Most scholars, and among them such eminent names as Boeckh, Westphal, Gevaert, Von Jan, Reinach, and Donkin, are agreed on the following propositions: that the ancient Greek modes were perfectly analogous to our modes; that their essential characteristic was the position of the fractional tones or, in

other words, the internal structure of the octave; that their modality was independent of the pitch of the octave scale; that the names Dorian, Phrygian, Lydian, etc., first used to distinguish the modes, *i. e.*, the internal structure of the octave, were afterward also used to distinguish what we call keys, *i. e.*, scales of a different pitch irrespective of their internal structure. For we must never lose sight of the fact that a scale fixed as to pitch may be of any mode, in our modern sense; and a scale fixed as to mode may be of any pitch, just as a black horse may be of any weight and a heavy horse may be of any color. The two classifications cover different ground and do not interfere. On the other side Mr. Monro holds (p. 5) that the names Dorian, etc., were not applied to modes as well as keys; that in the earlier periods of Greek music the scales in use, whether called *τόνοι* or *ἁρμονίαι*, differed primarily in pitch.

What makes this abstract question peculiarly interesting is the fact that Plato and Aristotle approve of some modes and disapprove of others, for educational purposes, because of their moral influence for better or for worse. The concrete question, as debated between the group of scholars first named and the author of this book, is whether Plato and Aristotle objected to or approved of certain music because of its pitch or because of its modality—*i. e.*, the internal structure of its scale.

There are, we presume, few, if any, musicians who will not feel that in this form the question answers itself. The proposition that the peculiar effect of a piece of music upon the hearer's soul depends on its pitch rather than on the internal structure of its scale, will strike most musical persons as simply preposterous. We know that even among skilled musicians there are many who could not with absolute certainty name notes of a familiar scale heard singly; and we may boldly assert that very few piano-tuners carry concert pitch so truly in their ear that they would venture to tune an untuned piano without referring to tuning-fork or pipe, or could tell the difference in pitch of two pianos heard at a considerable interval of time. To most ears "Yankee Doodle" in G does not differ in character from the same tune in C; and that is a considerably larger interval than anybody claims for the older Greek modes. On the other hand, there are few persons with any music in them who would not instantly detect a great difference in character between "Yankee Doodle" in its own major mode and "Yankee Doodle" played in the minor. The minor mode has such a peculiar *ethos* that very sensitive children are sometimes moved to tears by it, and even babes have been known to cease their play and look desolate when a few minor chords were struck on the piano. A high soprano singing a sad tune in the highest register of the human voice does not thereby give it a gay or lively character, nor does a rollicking song sound melancholy when sung by a basso profundo; but in either case a change from major to minor, or vice versa, would alter the whole character of the music.

If we, trained as we are to a fixed and absolute pitch determined scientifically by the number of its vibrations, find it impossible to be sure of the pitch of a note heard casually, it must have been far more difficult for a Greek to do this in the absence of any standard pitch; quite impossible, for example, to say whether a tune was pitched in the Dorian key of D flat or in the Hypolydian key of C, which differ by a single semitone. On the other hand, it seems incredible that a difference in

character which even our babies apprehend should have been either unperceived or considered as of no account by a people so æsthetic and so sensitive in matters of art as the ancient Greeks.

We therefore approach Mr. Monro's argument with a feeling that he will find it very difficult to prove his case. This is our bias, and we freely confess it. Let us now premise such examination as we can give to the author's reasoning, with the remark that he too approaches the question with a bias at least equally strong, and that this bias not only affects his judgment, but even his translations of ancient texts, which he unconsciously colors into harmony with his own preconceived theory. The passages quoted and discussed are taken from authors representing the better part of six centuries, from Pratinas (B. C. 500) to Plutarch (A. D. 80). A full discussion of them is, of course, impossible here. They fall naturally into two groups, those anterior to Aristoxenus, who, as a pupil of Aristotle, belongs to the latter half of the fourth century, and those subsequent to the reforms introduced by him in the musical art. Dismissing the passage from Pratinas, which may be translated to support either theory, the first passage of the earlier group is that in the 'Republic' of Plato, quoted on p. 7. There Socrates objects to certain *ἁρμονίαι* as plaintive and to others as "soft and convivial," while he approves of the Dorian and Phrygian as conducive to manliness. When we reflect that the difference in pitch between the Dorian and some of the rejected modes was considerably less than that between the "concert pitch" of to-day and the "classical pitch" of Beethoven's day, we fail to see how such a difference could even be discerned, to say nothing of its supposed influence on the *ethos* of the music. Yet the author insists on translating *χαλαραὶ* "low-pitched," whereas Liddell and Scott translate it "loose, languid, effeminate"—in short the Latin *mollis*, a word which has passed into the terminology of music in some European languages to denote the flattening of a note, in German to denote the minor mode, but nowhere the transposition of a scale. Now, if *χαλαραὶ* refers to pitch at all, it is far more credible to refer it, as Von Jan does ('Baumeister Denkmäler,' p. 978), to the flattening of particular notes in the octave. Such new modes would naturally be called flat modes, just as the minor is called *Moll* by the Germans on account of its diminished third.

It is curious that the author should have overlooked what seems to us a glaring contradiction in his argument. Plato objects to the Ionian as *χαλαρά*. Our author interprets this "low-pitched." The Dorian, therefore, which is not objected to, should be higher pitched. Now Mr. Monro regards *ἁρμονία* and *τόνος* as "two different names for the same thing" (p. 28, 29), and in the table given on page 128 the Ionian *τόνος* is not lower, as it should be, but higher by a semitone than the Dorian. The same is true of the Lydian, also one of the *χαλαραὶ ἁρμονίαι*, which, in the same table and also in the one on p. 127, appears to be a full major-third higher than the Dorian.

The author's treatment of the next witness, Heraclides Ponticus (390 B. C.), is quite characteristic. Heraclides is an ugly witness; he qualifies a certain mode as not a mode at all, but *τρόπον τινὰ θαυμαστὸν σχήματος ἁρμονίας*, "a wondrous sort of modification of the scheme of a *harmonia*"; and if *harmonia* means pitch, no one will deny that the "modification of the scheme of a pitch" must indeed be a wondrous thing. But he is still more perverse; he pro-

tests "against those who do not appreciate differences of kind (*τὰς κατ' εἶδος διαφοράς*) and are guided only by the high or low pitch of the notes (*τῇ τῶν φθόγγων ὕψι καὶ βαρύτητι*), and declares that a mode ought to have a distinct moral or emotional character (*εἶδος ἥθους ἢ πάθους*). All this is dead against our author's views, and terribly hard to get rid of. Mr. Monro's bias is equal to the occasion. He simply denies the authority of Heraclides—chiefly, as it seems, because Heraclides refuses to regard the Lydian as a mode. And yet, a few pages further, pp. 13, 14, when Aristotle, whom he regards as his own witness, quotes without disapproval the views of some who thought that there were but two real modes, the Dorian and the Phrygian, this does not seem to disqualify the Stagirite as a witness in such matters. As to all that Heraclides says of the *εἶδος*, it is brushed aside with the remark that he did not necessarily use *εἶδος* in the technical sense of "species" of the octave, that is, as what we regard as the Greek modes. This is about as reasonable as if one should say that the word "gravity" in a work on physics should be understood to mean "an inaptitude for laughter." For Heraclides is a scientific person writing in a purely technical way. If we are at liberty to explain away such a writer's statements as made in some Pickwickian sense that does not clash with our theories, then all appeals to testimony are fundamentally nugatory.

The author is equally unsatisfactory in dealing with Aristotle's profound remark that melodies reflect the moral temper of men, *ἐν δὲ τοῖς μέλεσιν αὐτοῖς ἐστὶ μὴμήματα τῶν ἥθων*. If we all recognize the truth that a people's music reflects its character, we also know and feel that it is not a difference of pitch that makes the Hungarian, the Polish, the Scotch music so characteristic. In the last-named, for example, we all know that it is the pentatonic scale that gives to the old Scotch melodies, however pitched, their peculiar *ἥθος*, and that the same effects may be produced by composing new ones on the same scale.

We have given only a few specimens, out of a very great number noted by us, of Mr. Monro's methods and his too evident bias. No more could be required of a reviewer with limited space at his command. We must now briefly consider his treatment of Aristoxenus. This writer wrote a treatise on music, in which the chapter on keys, which has mostly perished, follows a chapter on systems, "by which he means a scale consisting of a certain succession of intervals." "Such a system," says Mr. Monro, "may vary in absolute pitch, and the *τόνοι*, or keys, are simply the different degrees at which a particular system is taken." This, though loosely expressed, is all true enough; but Mr. Monro does not appear to us to see what it leads to. A system (a word of very comprehensive meaning) in which the relative pitch of the notes is settled is nothing but a fixed scale, similar, in this, to our piano scale. Now, such a fixed scale, apart from the question of *γένος*, which has no place here, must either proceed by seven steps to the octave, or else it must divide the octave into its thirteen semitones. In the latter case the keys, *i. e.*, "the degrees of pitch at which the system is taken" (p. 16), would be, one and all, what we call the chromatic scale, a mere succession of semitones. The keys of Aristoxenus are nothing of the sort; they proceed by varying intervals. If, on the other hand, the system is based on the octave by seven steps, a shift from one note to another would give a different *εἶδος* each time. This, too, we find not to be the case. All the tones of Aristoxenus are in

one and the same mode, the Hypophrygian, having the semitones in the third and sixth place. What, then, did Aristoxenus do? We think it was this: he formed a complete system by semitones, thirteen to each octave, and taught the musicians of his day which ones out of the thirteen were to be used when they wished to play a given mode in that system beginning on different notes, and left a complete diagram for one mode to show his method. This is precisely what we have to learn when we wish to play major or minor scales on different keys. We learn what notes of the fixed piano-scale, black and white, must be taken into our scale, and we signify our choice by either sharpening or flattening certain of the white notes, which, alone have names or places on the stave to connote them, by certain signs. If we used twelve letters or signs instead of seven letters combined with signs for flat and sharp, we should get just such keys or scales as Aristoxenus has left us in each of our two modes. This is what he means when he complains that his predecessors have not discussed the subject of keys, or directed how they should be taken—*τίνα τρόπον ἀγγείν.*

When he adds that musicians assign the place of scales variously, what else can he mean than that they give different names to them, as if one should call B flat Dorian and G flat Hypophrygian? For, if keys are simply different starting-points on a given scale, there can evidently be no question of place that is not a question as to the assignment of names. There are clear evidences in Aristoxenus of his recognition of modality, as distinct from pitch. Thus, when he points out the incompleteness of former theories (p. 49), he complains that the writers have treated only of systems in the enharmonic genus, omitting the diatonic and chromatic, and he adds: *περί δὲ τῶν ἄλλων γένων τὴ καὶ σχημάτων ἐν αὐτῷ τε τῷ γένει τούτῳ καὶ τοῖς λοιποῖς οὐδ' ἐπεχείρει οὐδεὶς καταμανθάνειν.* That is, they omitted the other genera and also the *schemata* in this and the other genera. So that, in his view, there were three things of which to take note—system, genus, and *schema*; and it is hard to say what *schema* means if it be not an equivalent for modality. Again, in speaking of the work of Eratocles, he says plainly enough that unless the pentachord and tetrachord (of which, when conjoint, the octave consists) are first determined as to form, *i. e.*, modality, the schemes are more than seven; and, in fact, as each pentachord may have its semitone in any of five places, and each tetrachord in any of four, and the two have one note in common, the possible combinations are fifteen.

Mr. Monro treats Plutarch in the same remarkable way. The only passage from Plutarch which has much bearing on the mode question is one in which it is stated that Lamprocles of Athens noticed that, in the Mixolydian, the disjunctive tone was at the upper end of the scale, and reformed the scale accordingly. This statement, quoted by Plutarch from a certain Lysis, possibly the Pythagorean philosopher of that name, is of course flatly opposed to Mr. Monro's theories that modes and keys were the same thing; and he deals with this witness as he dealt with Heraclides Ponticus. He challenges the authority of Lysis because "nothing else seems to be known of him." Not a few received facts in archaeology rest ultimately on the authority of persons equally unknown; and Plutarch in no way distinguishes the authority of this writer from that of many whom he merely

quotes by name, as, for example, Glaucus the Italian.

We have confined our remarks to that part of Mr. Monro's book which answers to its title. There are, scattered through the volume, many valuable remarks on other points in Greek music. The author is a very learned man and an excellent Hellenist, and whatever he says when he is not riding his particular hobby is worthy of the most respectful attention. Besides the two tables already referred to, the appendix contains the music of the "Orestes" of Euripides, vv. 338-344, the musical part of the Seikelos inscription, and the hymns recently discovered at Delphi, an account of which was given in the *Nation* of May 10, 1894. The book has a table of contents and a list of passages quoted, but lacks a general index, which would have been particularly useful because the author's statements with regard to any given point are often scattered through different parts of the volume, and are somewhat difficult to collate.

A MOUNTAIN ENTHUSIAST.

The Mountains of California. By John Muir. The Century Co. Pp. 381.

MR. MUIR'S delightful volume, which comes to jaded city-prisoners like a breeze from a mountain cañon, will at once take its place as a California classic by the side of Whitney's book on the Yosemite Valley, and Clarence King's 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada.' More than any other Californian of the past or present is he qualified by knowledge, sympathy, and personal experience, combined with the habit of scientific observation and the gift of a poetic style, to write a monograph on what he pronounces the "most divinely beautiful" of all the mountain chains he has seen. For a quarter of a century the Sierra Nevada Mountains have been his haunt in summer, often in winter, too. "Going to the mountains" is to him "like going home"; sometimes, even as the bees and butterflies, he is "too richly and homogeneously joy-filled to be capable of partial thought"; at other times he finds in regard to the influence of these surroundings that "instead of producing a dissipated condition, the mind is fertilized and stimulated and developed like sun-fed plants." He is his own guide and cook; his outfit consists of a bag of bread, a package of tea, a cup, an ice-axe. No need of blankets or hammocks where one can, in the meadows, lie down almost anywhere. "And what glorious botanical beds I had!" he exclaims. "Often times on awaking I would find several new species leaning over me and looking me full in the face, so that my studies would begin before rising." In the higher regions there are natural pine thickets, or one can make beds of the boughs of the red fir, compared with which, "even in the matter of sensuous ease, any combination of cloth, steel-springs, and feathers seems vulgar"; in these alone one can enjoy the "clear, deathlike sleep of the tired mountaineer." The pine thickets, where the branches form a roof overhead and are bent down around the sides, "are the best bed-chambers the high mountains afford—snug as squirrel-nests, well ventilated, full of spicy odors, and with plenty of wind-played needles to sing one to sleep." In the highest regions he takes a hint from the animals and their choice of the dwarf pine as a dormitory: "During stormy nights I have often camped snugly beneath the interlacing arches of this little pine. The needles, which have accumulated for centuries, make fine beds, a fact well

known to other mountaineers, such as deer and wild sheep, who paw out oval hollows and lie beneath the larger trees in safe and comfortable concealment."

These details regarding the author's personal habits are scattered incidentally throughout the book. Mr. Muir never poses like Thoreau, whom he otherwise resembles in his worship of nature and intimacy with wild animals; he keeps his personality in the background, nor does he, like Thoreau, constantly drag in human analogies, and moralizings on man and his ways. The beauties and sublimities of the California mountains have for him such an absorbing fascination that man is crowded out, and even the writer usually disappears from sight. We have here nature pure and unadulterated, in chapters on the chain as a whole, the glaciers, the snow, the passes, the glacier lakes, the glacier meadows, the forests, the Douglassquirtle, wind-storms in the forests, the river floods, Sierra thunder-storms, the water-ouzel, wild sheep, the foothills, the bee pastures—sixteen chapters, each a gem of landscape or animal painting.

Mr. Muir believes that the Yosemite Valley was once a lake, and that it was carved originally, like all the Sierra scenery, by the ice which in the last glacial age covered this region perhaps more than a mile in average depth. The glaciers carved the mountain sides and the passes, and in gradually receding they left the glacier lakes, whose place, again, was taken by the glacier meadows, looking smooth as cultivated lawns, yet without their "painful, licked, nipped, repressed appearance"; for their graceful grasses and flowers respond to the caresses of every breeze. Until the discovery of the Black Mountain glacier by Mr. Muir in 1871, it was not known that there were any glaciers left in the Sierra. Now it is known they exist all the way down from the great Muir glacier, in Alaska, with its two hundred tributaries, to the much smaller ones of the Sierra, Mt. Shasta having three. The highest of all the peaks, nevertheless, Mt. Whitney, has not been able to preserve any of its ice-rivers from the rays of the southern sun, even at its altitude of 14,998 feet. Summer after summer did Mr. Muir hunt for new glaciers, driving in stakes to measure their rate of motion, which he found to be very slow—in the Maclure Glacier only an inch a day, whereas that of the Muir Glacier in Alaska is from five to ten feet. The lowest Sierra glacier is at an elevation of 9,500 feet.

Most of the sublime phenomena witnessed by Mr. Muir are accessible to any one who will spend a summer and a winter in the Sierra Nevada. But there are some of which he only can make sure who is willing, like our author, to give up half his life to intercourse with the mountains. Ninety-nine tourists in a hundred see the Sierra only in summer, but Mr. Muir used to "look forward with delight to the approaching winter, with its wondrous storms," when he would be warmly snow-bound in his Yosemite cabin, with plenty of bread and books. Thus it happened that (in 1873) he witnessed a perfect display of what he pronounces the most magnificent of all storm phenomena he ever saw—silvery banners of snow dust attached to the peaks of the Merced group like streamers at a masthead, each "from half a mile to a mile in length, slender at the point of attachment, then widening gradually as it extended from the peak until it was about 1,000 or 1,500 feet in breadth." Some of these snow banners extended from peak to peak, while others overlapped.

The mountains of California are a region of

startling contrasts and amazing climatic juxtapositions. While some places are buried forty feet under snow, while avalanches crash from the heights, making wide paths of desolation on the forested slopes, and while the low pine boughs are frozen so stiff that a horseman can ride safely over them, the sun may come out for days, inviting birds and squirrels to gambol and flowers to bloom: "It often happens that while one side of a lake basin is hopelessly snow-buried and frozen, the other, enjoying sunshine, is adorned with beautiful flower gardens. Some of the smaller lakes are extinguished in an instant by a heavy avalanche either of rocks or snow." But there are plenty left. In Mr. Muir's opinion, every lake in the Sierra is a glacier lake, and he estimates their number at 1,500, the Merced River Basin alone having 131. There are no fish in these lakes, but plenty of frogs. Glacier meadows have now taken the place of about 3,000 of these former lakes, and furnish ideal camping-places and a botanists' paradise. We read of larkspurs seven or eight feet high. "Here," writes Mr. Muir of one place, "the lilies were higher than my head, and the sunshine was warm enough for palms. Yet the snow around the arctic willows was plainly visible only four miles away, and between were narrow specimen zones of all the principal climates of the globe." Even in the glacial regions the sparseness and repressed character of the vegetation "is caused more by want of soil than by harshness of climate," for wherever a few rods of well-ground moraine chips have been dumped, there we find groves of spruce and pine, patches of willows and huckleberry bushes.

"A Wind-Storm in the Forests" is one of the most delightful prose-poems ever penned. Mr. Muir describes what he saw and felt during a violent storm when he had climbed, on a Douglas spruce, a hundred feet high, to the summit of a lofty ridge, clinging to its elastic top for hours, describing with it arcs of twenty to thirty degrees. What he saw in his "travels on a tree top," and what he heard—each tree "singing its own song, and making its own peculiar gesture"—the reader must look for in the book itself; but we cannot refrain from quoting his admirable analysis of Sierra mountain air—the delicious fragrance that intoxicates all the fortunate visitors to the Yosemite:

"The fragrance of the woods was less marked than that produced during warm rain, when so many balsamic buds and leaves are steeped like tea: but, from the chafing of resinous branches against each other, and the incessant attrition of myriads of needles, the gale was spiced to a very tonic degree. And besides the fragrance from these local sources there were traces of scents brought from afar. For this wind came first from the sea, rubbing against its fresh, briny waves, then distilled through the redwoods, threading rich, ferny gulches, and spreading itself in broad, undulating currents over many a flower-enamelled ridge of the coast mountains, then across the golden plains, up the purple foothills, and into these piny woods with the varied incense gathered by the way."

Twenty illustrations of various mountain trees—ranging from the graceful, slender *Pinus tuberculata* to the giant Sequoia—add to the interest of the long chapter on the forests, in which the section on the Big Trees occupies a prominent place. In the opinion of Mr. Muir, these Big Trees might continue to excite the awe and admiration of man for ever, were it not for man's own depredations. Their vitality is practically inexhaustible. They produce abundance of seeds, millions being ripened annually by the same tree; he has found eighty-six saplings in the soil of an up-

rooted tree; groups are widely scattered—as widely as ever, as he gives good reason for believing; drought does not hurt them, as they withstand it best of all trees; but they suffer most of all trees from fires, especially those set by the sheep-herders; and unless protective measures are speedily taken, in a few decades nothing but scarred monuments will be left.

Mr. Muir defends the mountains of California from the charge that there is hardly any animal life in them. The dusty tourist who goes to the Yosemite in a noisy stage will, indeed, see little of life. But if he will, Thoreau-like, or Muir-like, make his home in the woods, he will soon find himself surrounded by animal friends. He will make the pleasing discovery that wild sheep are less timid than the tame. Mr. Muir was once snowbound on Mount Shasta for three days, and when the storm abated he found that a band of wild sheep had weathered the storm under a group of dwarf pines a few yards above his storm nest. To these animals he devotes a separate chapter, and another to the water-ouzel, which makes its home near the waterfalls, never leaving them, and which, like the mocking-bird, always has new strains in its song. Very amusing is his biography of the bold and omnipresent Douglas squirrel, who handles one-half of all the cones; he throws them on the ground, and is often obliged to hasten down and drive away lazy pilferers below. He is not good for food: "eating his flesh is like chewing gum." Then there are the humming-birds, woodpeckers, grouse, quails, crows, jays, and many other birds; deer, bears, beavers digging chambers in the glacier meadows, etc. Of bears Mr. Muir has no fear—like them, going through thickets on all fours; and in following the bear trails he "often found tufts of hair on the bushes, where they had forced themselves through." Indians, too, he has met occasionally—Mono Indians, clad in geological dirt and rabbit skins, begging whiskey and tobacco, on their way to the Yosemite to get acorns and a trout-supper; or gathering the wild rye, which grows to a height of six to eight feet, or the pine nuts, of which one man can gather thirty to forty bushels in a season—food for man, horse, dog, as well as for birds and squirrels. The crop is larger than the State's wheat crop, but hardly a bushel in a thousand is ever gathered. White men have been killed by Indians for cutting down these bread trees—a penalty which would have been more justifiable in the case of the murderers of the venerable Sequoias.

Among the fifty-three illustrations in this volume there are many beauties; that of Mt. Hood alone does not seem to us a good likeness. The *Century* articles on the Greater Yosemite are not included in this volume, which makes one hope that there will be another.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

MR. FRANK J. GOODNOW's work on 'Comparative Administrative Law' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is the first general work on the subject in the English language. Special branches have been treated in much detail in English and American works on constitutional law, taxation, public corporations and officers; and there is a rich Continental literature. Mr. Goodnow deals, in a large way, with the administrative systems, national and local, of the United States, England, France, and Germany. The work is not, and does not profess to be, exhaustive. It is intended especially for the use and encouragement of beginners in the study of the subject. As the author states, the

great problems of public law with which the present age has to deal are administrative rather than constitutional in character; and this is specially true of the problems awaiting solution in the United States. It is, therefore, highly important that the study of the subject should be assisted, and a comparison like that here instituted is obviously the scientific and interesting way of presenting it. In style, method, and scope, the book seems to be well calculated to accomplish its purpose.

Prof. Joseph H. Beale, jr., of the Harvard Law School, has prepared 'Cases on Criminal Law' (Cambridge: Harvard Law Review Publishing Association), a selection intended chiefly for the use of classes in law schools. As in the other collections used at the Harvard Law School, the headnotes of cases are omitted, that the student may be taught to extract the principle of a case for himself; and to render the book useful to the practitioner an index of the authorities on each subject has been added. The cases are chronologically arranged and are carefully classified under appropriate headings and sub-headings. The work of selection and classification has been excellently done, and the book is admirably adapted to exhibit the historical development of the law of crimes and to assist the student to understand the evolution of legal principles. The method of study which this book is designed to serve, proceeds upon the theory that in order thoroughly to understand an existing principle of law it is necessary to know its origin and growth. It is not a quick and easy method, but it has borne good fruit at the institution from which Mr. Beale's work emanates.

'The Historical Development of the Jury System,' by Maximus A. Lesser (Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Publishing Company), is a concise history of the English jury. It contains brief sketches of similar or related institutions of the Greeks, Romans, Germans, Britons, Anglo-Saxons, and Normans; a statement of the growth of the English system from the time of Henry II.; and a somewhat desultory discussion of the system as it now exists. It lays claim to "originality in the treatment and presentation of the materials at hand, rather than originality of research." It does not possess any considerable value for the specialist; but as a compendium of references to and extracts from the works of the leading and older authorities on the subject, it should be helpful to the general reader.

One would have supposed that the excellent works of Lewis and Mills on eminent domain rendered another work on that subject one of supererogation; but an examination of Mr. C. F. Randolph's treatise, 'The Law of Eminent Domain in the United States' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), shows it to have a peculiar value. As a digest of the authorities it may not serve the practitioner as well as the much larger book of Lewis; nor does it deal as fully with the constitutional side of the subject. On the other hand, it has the merit—so rare in current legal literature—of being a clear, compact, and philosophical statement of the law, supported by the leading and latest adjudications.

Mr. B. J. Shipman has prepared an excellent 'Hand-book of Common-Law Pleading' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.). The old common-law system, so admirable for its logical accuracy and completeness, is no longer used, in its entirety, anywhere. Even England, its mother, has abandoned it. Yet it is the foundation upon which the various reformed systems in use where English law prevails have been built. Some knowledge of the common-

law system is, therefore, indispensable to a thorough understanding of the systems derived from it. Mr. Shipman has stated, clearly and concisely, those common law rules which are still recognized and applied in this country, and those which, although they have become obsolete in practice, underlie the method now in use. He has very wisely followed the arrangement and adopted the rules found in Stephen on Pleading—the classic of this branch of the law and one of the best textbooks ever written. We may add that Mr. Shipman's work, like that of Stephen, contains—what its title does not indicate—much valuable matter relating to questions of practice and substantive law.

'Browne's Kent's Commentaries' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) is the text of Kent, much altered and condensed by the editor, with catchwords prefixed to each paragraph, and without annotations. The editor believes that the notes "confuse the student and general reader, and tend to divert and lessen their interest in the subject." This edition is not to be compared with the accurate and scholarly editions of Comstock and Holmes; and the attempt to condense Kent is not more successful than similar attempts with other legal classics have been.

A third and carefully revised edition of 'Taylor on Private Corporations' (Philadelphia: Kay & Bro.) should be favorably received as a decided improvement of a book well known in the profession as a logical and accurate exposition of the law, and as a law-book which is something more than a digest of cases.

'The Art of Winning Cases,' by Mr. Henry Hardwicke of the New York Bar (Albany: Banks & Bros.), is a bulky book, whose contents hardly justify its alluring title. It is so diffuse in style and full of quotation that, looking at the somewhat jocose anecdotes scattered through it, and the doggerel case in rhyme at the very end, one might suppose the author had intended writing merely for the leisure hours of elderly attorneys. On the other hand, the real gravity with which he has set out, in full, somebody's "Fifty Rules in regard to Professional Deportment," and much other serious advice quoted similarly *in extenso*, suggests that the book was really meant to teach the winning of cases. It is a pity that such a doubt should arise over a treatise evincing wide reading among the best law books and a most industrious gathering together of legal commentary, often from the highest sources, much of which is entertaining and much generally instructive, supplemented by intelligent comment of the author's own. Mr. Hardwicke's selective powers, however, seem not to have been quite adequate to his task. One rises from his book with a confused sense of having read a quantity of brilliant dicta by the great masters of the law, all, no doubt, improving, but failing; individually and collectively, "to tell us of the road," hinted at in the title, "which, to discover, we must travel, too." We mistrust, moreover, the judgment of a writer who puts together that curious list of names (at page 29), some singularly misspelled, which he presents to his readers as those of "the brightest ornaments of the ablest bar in the United States."

When We were Strolling Players in the East.
By Louise Jordan Miln. With illustrations.
Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE author of this book is cosmopolitan. Born in a slave State, bred in California, edu-

cated at Vassar, married to an Englishman, she has figured as an actress in four continents. The present volume chronicles mainly her career in India, though not without episodes, or tentative endeavors, in Burmah, China, and Japan. Her husband's theatrical troupe sometimes swelled to seven and twenty and anon dwindled to four. They played in a new theatre the night after their arrival from Australia in Colombo, and, without landing in Southern India, steamed to Calcutta. In that city they acted during Christmas holidays, but the year is not stated. Lady travellers are as shy of telling the years of their journeys as those of their own age, but they betray both unawares. No year is mentioned in the movements of Mrs. Miln till the last fourth of her volume (p. 273). Long before that, however, we learn that the Calcutta Christmas was in 1890, for we find it was in the winter before the Tsesarevitch was assaulted in Otsu, which all the world knows was in 1891.

The theatrical adventurers tried their fortune in Burmah at Rangoon and Mandalay; in China at Shamen and Shanghai; and in Japan at Nagasaki, Yokohama, and Tokio. In Tokio they narrowly missed, as they thought, a great success. Mrs. Miln—always the better half of her husband—says: "We were ambitious to play the 'Merchant of Venice' before his imperial Majesty; and so, with nights of plotting and days of diplomacy, brought to bear an influence we thought not inconsiderable." Among other expedients she sought aid from a Vassar Japanese schoolmate whom she found a potential personage at the Mikado's court. But the attack on the Tsesarevitch was a death-blow to her hopes. After all, her party played "Julius Caesar"—in English, of course—to two Japanese audiences. They also performed in the European theatre. Returning to India, they acted at Darjeeling high in the Himalayas, and here and there throughout the northern provinces even to the Afghan frontier, bidding the Orient farewell at Karachi. Their Shaksperian repertory included (besides "The Merchant of Venice") "Julius Caesar," "Hamlet," and "Othello."

Financially, the expedition could not have been lucrative, especially as Mrs. Miln never saw a curio without entering into temptation, and was also ill for six months, not without expense, in the hill country inland from Bombay. Audiences were small, for English was Greek to all but a select few. But Mrs. Miln was a born traveller, and must hold the sorrows of travel to be sweeter than all other joys. This feeling she proclaims on her first page in place of a preface, in words which will waken echoes in the heart of every one who has found his chief joy while "going to and fro in the earth." She has written a better book than she would have made had her dramatic venture been more triumphant and her health more uniform. Owing to distressful vicissitudes—and even to the death of two of her children—she saw and could describe in truthful lines more varieties of Oriental life. "The hand of little employment hath the daintier sense." Had her professional life been more crowded, had she known no invalidism, her book would lack many local traits to which she was sensitive and which she had leisure to write out. Hers was an insatiable and adventurous curiosity. Many are her confessions of sins, sometimes unpardonable, against local usage and conventional etiquette. She penetrated where no European woman had been. She was in jails, in leper hospitals, in midnight bazaars; voyaged in native house-boats on Chinese canals, ventured alone on a jinriksha country ride,

did her best to enter the Khyber Pass. In all these scenes, however, the risk was really *nil*, as the present reviewer knows by experience. But the imaginary was great.

The forte of Mrs. Miln is in describing Eastern costumes and culinaries. As to these matters, as none have had better opportunities to learn, so none have written better. More than one-fourth of her chapters are headed Oriental nuptials or obsequies, with their feasts and robes. One chapter is entitled "Chinese Shoes." Her profession was second only to the physician's in opening for her the doors of jealously guarded native penetralia wherever English speech was understood. At Patiala her sesame opened the palace and purse of the Sikh Maharajah, master of two million subjects, with one European wife, and surrounded by a coterie of Europeans. She says: "We played merely for him and his guests—at whatever hour pleased him—and we were paid whether we played or not. The scenes we did from Shakspeare his Highness demanded over and over. He often surprised my husband by a long and correctly quoted passage from the dramatist." But it was in out-of-the-way British garrisons that the players strolled with most zest. In those retreats they were welcomed by spectators crazy for something outside their monotonous routine, and sometimes discovered amateurs who for the nonce would and could fill out the depleted ranks of the troupe.

The impressions of Mrs. Miln during two years of Oriental strolling she has written out in a narrative effusive—we had almost said diffusive—and superfusive. The information afforded by it is small compared with what is stored in W. S. Caine's 'Picturesque India,' or Wells Williams's 'Middle Kingdom,' or Mrs. Bird's 'Japan.' Yet her work is more readable than either of them, and so will give more to many a reader than he will take from better books. Her strollings will lie on holiday tables and furnish matter enough for holiday perusal—light reading for lighter hours.

Critical readers, however, will not be quite satisfied. The spelling of Sir William Hunter, the recognized Oriental authority, was unknown or unheeded by Mrs. Miln. She mistakes the Persian tongue for Sanskrit. The foreign residents in Shamen, whom she reckons at four-score, are at least three hundred. On the other hand, the five hundred statues of Chinese sages she multiplies tenfold. In order to go into Canton, she says, "the residents must have a pass; which must be shown to the guards at the city gate" (p. 139). The present writer was there in the same year with Mrs. Miln, and went in and out often, always without a pass, and needed none. The horse-shoe shape of sepulchral monuments, which she thinks peculiar to the rich, he there saw on the graves of the poorest. She must herself be vexed to see among manifold misprints the home of her childhood persistently misspelled as Los Angeles. Regarding Burmah we encounter divers hard sayings. "The Burmese do not believe in immortality" (p. 88). A rhapsodical chapter describes marriage as doing its most perfect work in Burmah, where it is always leap year, and yet it appears an utter failure in the palace of the King. Mrs. Miln indulges in a skit against missionaries, as if she knew more than they about the religions of the East, and yet betrays the densest ignorance of their work. She says: "A heathen man sometimes deserts the heathen gods—a heathen woman does so almost never" (p. 241). She cannot point to a mission where female converts are not counted by hundreds,

while males are numbered by tens. One is reminded of the personally conducted Cook globe-trotter, who declared there were no missions in the Orient, for he had been everywhere and had seen none. The pictures, thinly scattered to make up a show, sometimes illustrate nothing and sometimes show places unmentioned in the letter-press, as Delhi and Siam.

After all, the blunders of the book will be forgotten in reading not a few amusing incidents like this: Mrs. Miln and a Japanese lady, neither of them a smoker, and neither speaking the other's language, sat in a tête-à-tête. Each thought the other fond of cigarettes and smoked not a few out of politeness to her companion. As a natural result one of them suffered a sick headache, and the other was excruciated with something perhaps worse.

General Lee. By Fitzhugh Lee. [Great Commanders.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 433.

AN authoritative Life of Robert E. Lee is much to be desired, and it would seem that his nephew and cavalry commander must be the man to write it. To so near a relative the family papers are no doubt freely opened, and to a distinguished officer in constant and close military association his campaigns were very familiar. Then the publishers have given extra space to the work, and by reduction of margins and of type, and by a considerable increase of pages, have, without destroying the external symmetry of the series, produced a volume containing much more matter than is found in most of the other "Commanders." The advantage of free access to Lee's private correspondence is seen chiefly in the chapters on Lee's life before 1861, and many interesting letters assist greatly in forming a vivid picture of his character and personal traits. We wish that he could speak for himself in the same way throughout his career, but quotations from private letters become infrequent after the war period is fairly entered.

Gen. Fitzhugh Lee has told the story of the campaigns in Virginia and Maryland from the Confederate standpoint with clearness and force, and is a model of modesty in hiding his own part in those stirring events. Indeed, it may be thought that he has gone too far in this direction, for the form of personal testimony to important occurrences is almost demanded of him in his office of biographer and would have been gladly received by his readers. The few instances in which he has quoted General Lee's conversations with himself have added weight from this fact. Most of the book is of course made up of the campaigns of 1862-65. The line of distinction between a general military history of a campaign and the personal biography of the commander is a rather subtle one, hard to draw, and requiring great skill to draw it successfully. We long to see and know the man himself in the performance of his public duties. It is not enough to attribute every success to him and to close the chapter on a battle with some strong phrases of eulogy. We would rather let the work of his own brain and will show for itself and speak his praises, while we get all that can be given us of his looks, his words, his actions and his life behind the scenes. We fear it must be said that the author has elaborated the general history to the point of obscuring the real personality of the subject of the memoir.

In some important particulars worse than this has happened. The fourth chapter is devoted to the causes which led to the civil war and to Lee's reasons for resigning from the

United States Army. To the student of his life this is the crisis. We have the right to ask his biographer that both his words and his conduct shall be here given without gloss or paraphrase. What did Robert E. Lee then think and believe, and what did he do? What Fitzhugh Lee and other young men who went hotly into secession thought and did, would be interesting, but it is the proper subject of another book. Yet instead of giving Gen. Lee's words and acts in this crisis, the author has given a disquisition of his own on the formation of the Constitution of the United States and on the so-called reserved rights of the States. By stating that "Robert Lee knew all this" (p. 80), without giving any expressed opinion of Lee's, he assumes that Robert E. Lee agreed with his conclusions. Worse still, on the next page he declares that "the study of the early history of his country convinced Lee that, while the secession of a State from the Union might not be a remedy, it was not a violation of the Constitution so far as the original thirteen States were concerned." He then adds several paragraphs in the same vein, telling what Lee "probably found, also, in the anxious study he was then making," what "he might have noticed" in the Constitution, what he "had probably read, too," in regard to the Hartford Convention of 1814, what "he might have seen" of Northern advocacy of secession, and concludes: "The more Robert E. Lee thought upon the subject, the more he became convinced, first, that Virginia in seceding from the Union was exercising the right she had reserved when she entered it."

Such a taking of liberties with Lee's memory is simply astounding. It is done without the quotation of a word from Lee's lips or pen which supports or justifies it; nay, it is done in clearest and most explicit contradiction of what Lee himself said. The only letter of Lee's which is quoted in this connection itself contradicts the statement of the text. It is a letter to his wife of January, 1861, in which he says that if the border States join the seceding Gulf States, they will be "dragged into the gulf of revolution" (p. 84). Here was no talk of acting upon legally reserved constitutional rights, for the word "revolution" was the recognized shibboleth of the nationalists as against the secessionists. It told where he stood as well as a flag would have done.

But we are not confined to such brief, if satisfactory, statements of his position. In the same month of January, 1861, "in the anxious study he was then making," he wrote to his son, who, in his early manhood, had also to choose his course. The letter is printed in Gen. Long's Life of Lee, and has been some seven years before the public. In it Lee records the result of his study with an explicitness which leaves no room for debate:

"Secession is nothing but revolution. The framers of our Constitution never exhausted so much labor, wisdom, and forbearance in its formation and surrounded it with so many guards and securities, if it was intended to be broken up by every member of the confederacy at will. It is intended for 'perpetual union,' so expressed in the preamble, and for the establishment of a government, not a compact, which can only be dissolved by revolution or the consent of all the people in convention assembled. It is idle to talk of secession."

Where shall we find in biography another so bold an example of a biographer explicitly inverting the statement of principles held by his subject in the great crisis of his life?

The family affections and interests, the personal ties, the local influences that made Lee "go with his State" against his own convictions are not hard to understand. He tells this

story also in his correspondence, and charitable hearts will sympathize with his embarrassment and will not rail at his decision. But his principles and opinions were maturely formed and clearly expressed, and when we find the biography changing them into their opposites, all faith in the book is destroyed.

In the military narrative the sectional standpoint of the writer is most noticeable in the laudatory and friendly treatment of the national officers who did not hurt the Confederacy, and the hostile interpretation of the conduct of Lincoln's administration of military affairs and of those commanders who pushed the war with vigor. The "tears of the groundlings" are again tickled with the oft-refuted sarcasm that Pope announced "headquarters in the saddle." Instead of going to the published official records for the numerical forces of Lee's armies and those opposed to him, he uses vague estimates of his own or of others, such as Col. Taylor in his "Four Years with Lee" published many years since. He thus states Lee's forces at Antietam to have been 35,000 men instead of nearly 60,000, and at Gettysburg to have been 62,000 instead of nearly 80,000. He seems to be unaware of the critical analysis of the actual returns which has been made as the official records have been put in print. This mode of writing history cannot satisfy intelligent men of the present generation. It is only a survival of the blind partisanship of the war period. Lee's abilities as a general were great enough to need no fictions about the odds at which he fought. The time has fully come when exaggeration will hurt rather than help an historical reputation, and when no book can hold a place in historical literature that is not written with recognized methods of thorough research.

The History of Trade-Unionism. By Sidney and Beatrice Webb. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

THE point of view from which these authors have surveyed their subject is that of advanced socialism, or collectivism, as it is the fashion to call it in England. As the title warns us, we are not to look here for a description of trade-unions, an account of their progress, or a summary of their regulations, although a chapter is devoted to the present "Trade-Union World," and many interesting particulars are given, showing the manner in which these organizations conduct their routine affairs. But the aim of the book is to trace the progress of ideas; to follow the course of a "movement" in its connection with the political history of England. The history of trade-unionism is "the history of a state within our state, and one so jealously democratic that to know it well is to know the English workingman as no reader of middle-class histories can know him."

A trade-union, as the term is used here, is a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their employment. The authors consider that whatever associations of this kind may have existed upon the continent of Europe have had no influence upon the development of the English unions. Nor do they admit that any continuous associations of this kind are to be recognized in England before the eighteenth century. By a strict application of their definition they exclude all supposed mediæval instances or prototypes, as embracing employers as well as workmen. If workmen were admitted to membership in the trade-guilds of the Middle Ages, it was because

they were expected in due time to rise to be employers. The apprenticed journeyman in the skilled handicrafts belonged to the same social grade as his employer, and was indeed usually the son of a master in the same or an analogous trade. What distinguishes the modern era and the modern trade-union is the development of a caste of "wage-servants." In short, there was once a time when a workman might expect to rise from the position of a receiver of wages to that of a giver; from the ranks of labor to those of capital. That time, according to the theory of these writers, has past. Once a workman always a workman, is their principle; and it was after the time—whenever it was—when this change in industrial conditions took place, that the modern trade-union came into existence.

In accordance with this theory, obnoxious facts are ignored or condemned. The rise of workmen to the position of employers has been one of the striking features of the industrial development of England, as Mr. Smiles's biographies testify, and the number of coöperative establishments has been, and is, very great. Our authors maintain, however, that, "fortunately for the trade-union movement" (it might rather be said, for their theory of it), these experiments have resulted uniformly in commercial failure. We believe this statement to be contrary to the evidence, although it is undeniable that the coöperative movement has not justified the hopes of its advocates. But, as we are discussing theories rather than facts, the point is not material. The theory of trade-unionism is that industrial society was once divided vertically, trade by trade, while it is now divided horizontally into employers and wage-earners, and this history is written to illustrate that theory.

Within the limits imposed by this assumption, the authors seem to us to have done their work well. Their account of the origin, application, and repeal of the laws against combinations of laborers is clear and interesting. It is an effective way of putting the case to say that in the new system of industry a single employer is himself equivalent to a numerous combination. As Lord Jeffrey had it, "a single master was at liberty at any time to turn off the whole of his workmen at once—100 or 1,000 in number—if they would not accept of the wages he chose to offer. But it was made an offence for the whole of the workmen to leave that master at once if he refused to give the wages they chose to require." The prohibition of combination bore, therefore, with very unequal force upon employers and workmen. For many reasons the law was not very often carried out, and it was repealed, in connection with the adoption of a measure legalizing trade-societies, in 1824.

Half a century passed, however, before the demands of the trade-unions for free action in their disputes were conceded. So long as the conspiracy laws endured, under which an act not penal if performed by an individual of his own motion became so when performed by the agreement of several persons, the unions felt themselves hampered in fighting employers. But in 1875 they procured legislation abolishing imprisonment as a punishment for breach of contract, permitting "picketing," and abolishing the common-law rule of conspiracy. Meanwhile the unions had succeeded in obtaining protection for their funds without subjecting themselves to liability to civil actions. Since 1875, it may be said, the unions have had no complaints to make of laws discriminating against them; they have rather

assumed the offensive and demanded discrimination in their favor.

These new demands, of course, deny the right of any workman to follow a trade except as a member of the trade union. The enforcement of membership stands upon the same footing as the enforcement of citizenship. There was a time when some influential trade-unionists talked of "the Englishman's right to freedom of contract"; but this talk, according to the authors of this history, was perilously near cant, and it is heard no more. All attempts to regulate wages by any "sliding scale" are also condemned. The "standard of life" is to be maintained by compulsion, in bad times as well as good. In this struggle no faith is to be kept with employers. If they exact promises from those whom they employ, it is by "duress," and promises so extorted carry with them "little legal and still less moral obligation." Upon the whole, this book must be commended for its frank statement of the purposes of the new trade-unionism, and the authors can regard it with a complacency marred by only one regret—that they did not delay publication until the work could be crowned with the record of the complete capture of the last trade-union congress by the collectivists.

The Protected Princes of India. By William Lee-Warner, C.S.I. Macmillan. 1894. 8vo, pp. xii, 384.

THE author of this book was distinguished at Cambridge University a generation ago, and his "Star of India" shows that he is a valued civil servant of the Empress of India. He has employed his furlough in drawing up a comprehensive account—which he truly says does not exist elsewhere—of the relation which her Government holds to many hundred native States, large and small, oddly interspersed among those directly subject to the Governor-General.

He begins with a brief historical summary, divided into three periods: (1) what he calls the period of the "ring fence," when the East India Company treated all Powers outside its own borders as independent nations; (2) that of "subordinate isolation," when the native Powers were kept apart from each other, and constantly warned by precept and practice that annexation to the Company's dominions would be the penalty for misgovernment at home; (3) that of an imperial protectorate, where such home rule as the native princes retain is held in an undefined subjection to the "suzerain"—this functionary being called Kaiser-i-Hind, "the Caesar of India," a woman of German blood, exercising imperial authority to the east of Alexander's farthest march, from an island of which we first hear through the Roman proconsul whose name she uses, writing nineteen centuries ago! The summary is followed by an attempt to classify and explain the different energies and responsibilities of the supreme and subordinate governments—Great Britain and the Rajahs.

The author is so high-minded in himself and so painstaking in his work that it would be an agreeable task to praise it; but this is not easy. The style is arid even beyond the wont of books on India; the author constantly repeats himself without gaining an inch. Again and again, for instance, an illustration is drawn from the creation of the State of Sattara; yet there is never a hint that it was no creation at all, but a resuscitation of the parent State of the Marathas, which had once given laws to the Gaekwar and the Peishwa, to Gwalior and Indore. Mr. Lee-Warner's position as a civil

servant prevents his investigating the rights as well as the facts of subordination, annexation, and protection. He has to fall back on "imperial interests," and speaks of every act of Parliament as a finality, a sacred mystery which may not be questioned; and in fact, in so many words, disclaims the dangerous work of inquiry into the "mysteries of statesmanship." Hence there has hardly been a work since Auber's "British Power in India" appeared, which seems so instinct with the theory, "The British Raj can do no wrong."

This view becomes positively ludicrous when the author actually raises the question how far the constitutions of the United States of America and the confederated cantons of Switzerland correspond to the tie that unites the Nizam of Haiderabad and the Maharajah of Jaipur to the Government of the Queen-Empress. They cannot coin money; the mint at Calcutta does it all. Just so, he tells us, the individual States of the American Union have surrendered the power of coining to the central Government. He quotes again and again the preamble of our Constitution as far as its objects are concerned; yet he seems never to have apprehended that the words, "We, the people of the United States, do ordain this Constitution," simply place it in a different order of existence from the imperial sway of Great Britain, and make any apparent coincidence in some practical details purely futile.

When the author finally retires with well-earned honors as Sir William Lee-Warner, K.S.I., it is to be hoped he will rewrite his book, and tell us not merely what the overlords have done but how far they did right. He has a heart and a conscience equal to the task; and his intellect will work all the better for giving them free range undeterred by the "subordinate isolation" of a civil servant.

Wimples and Crisping-Pins. By Theodore Child. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. [1895.]

It is not easy to see with what portion of the sex into whose face the Prophet once hurled the list of its vanities, this volume is just now expected to find favor. Revolted daughters and lady-cyclists will hardly be pleased to hear that there is still some one who "would fain see women loaded with jewelry like idols, with diamonds and ear-plates on their heads, long droppers in their ears, their bosoms glittering with necklaces, their waists encircled with girdles of glory, their arms stiff with bracelets, and their ankles bedecked with rings that would jingle as they walked." Maidens whose fate hinges on the expenses of matrimony will not kindle at the suggestion that, except "the Arab women of the Ouled Nail tribe and the Nautch girls of India, no modern woman wears enough jewelry and ornaments of gold." It is a trifle too reactionary to announce to a generation of mothers and wives ready to step up to the polls that for "a woman gifted with beauty the ideal occupation is to wear beautiful clothes and ornaments, and look charming"; while most of the "thousands and thousands of ladies who dress divinely" will probably be averse to the praise of blonde hair-dye, even under the euphuism of the "arte biondeg-giante."

The sober-minded plodder seeking the hidden reason of things will also be put to it to discover why (apart from the baser motives of book-making) essays of such high dilution as these should have got into boards and cloth. Charm of style or originality of theme would, of course, have left no room for question. Of